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American Influence in Shaping Philippine Secondary Education: An Historical Perspective, 1898-1978

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AMERICAN INFLUENCE IN SHAPING PHILIPPINE
SECONDARY EDUCATION: AN HISTORICAL
PERSPECTIVE 1898-1978

by
Maria Guillen Acierto

A Dissertation Submitted to the Faculty of the Graduate School
of Loyola University of Chicago in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Education

June

1980

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Loyola University of Chicago
AMERICAN INFLUENCE IN SHAPING
PHILIPPINE SECONDARY EDUCATION:
AN HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE
1898 - 1978

This study concerned itself with the examination of American influence in shaping Philippine secondary education from 1898 to 1978. It was designed to identify how American school structures and curricula were transplanted to the Philippine school system. A careful examination of the development of secondary education under the American rule and the reorganization of secondary education under the Philippine Republic was undertaken.

Chapter I of this dissertation presented an overview of the nature and scope of the Philippine school system, historical perspective, structure and functions of the Department of Education, and education and economic development of the country. A presentation of the historical background which provided a framework in examining the Philippine education system was focused on in Chapter II. An analysis of the Philippine education under the Spanish regime was presented in the first part of Chapter III and the second part presented education under the American rule. The development of secondary schools in the Philippines

under the Americans was discussed in Chapter IV. American influence on shaping the Philippine secondary education was reflected in the aims, curriculum organization, method of instruction, evaluation, instructional materials and textbooks, teacher training, administration and supervision, and funding of schools. The organization of public secondary education was a part of the plan of the new government to endow the Philippines with a complete system of public schools from grade one to the high school. The development of the Philippine secondary schools under the Republic from 1946 to 1978 was presented in Chapter V. The main concern was to develop a more Philippine character in the secondary schools. It included the reorganization of the secondary educational system, aims, curriculum organization, enrollment, evaluation, instructional materials and textbooks, teacher training, administration and supervision, financing schools, new approaches to secondary education, and what still remains of American influence.

Chapter VI presented a retrospect and prospect of the Philippine educational system of the Republic. In retrospect, the Spaniards founded missionary schools for their children, and secondary schools and universities for their youth. The first secondary school was established by the Jesuits in 1585, in Manila. The Dominicans were the next religious order to establish secondary school. This was

the College of Santo Tomas, which was later called the University of Santo Tomas. In 1898 the Philippines was occupied by the American military government. The Americans established schools all over the country and opened these schools to all people, rich and poor alike, to the old as well as to the young. The founding of schools was a potent factor in the pacification of the Filipino people. The concept of free public education and educational opportunity for all Filipinos achieved the basic goal of democratization. The prospect of secondary education of the Philippines in the 80's stresses educational relevance and integration: emphasis on eliciting behavior that reflects development-oriented values, especially achievements orientation, self-reliance, self-discipline, community spirit, industry, and national consciousness.

To my family -

my husband
Alfredo

my children
Mary and Jim
Alfred and Sylvia
Robert and Eileen

and

my grandchildren
Emily
Elisa
Mireya
Kristen

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VITA

The author, Maria Guillen Acierto, is the daughter of Zacarias Guillen and Teodola (Pacis) Guillen. She was born February 2, 1922, in San Ildefonso, Ilocos Sur, Philippines.

She had her elementary education in the public schools of San Ildefonso, Ilocos Sur, and her secondary education in Vigan High School of the same province. She graduated in 1941.

In November 1945, she was married to Alfredo P. Acierto, who was in the United States Navy. They have three children and four granddaughters.

In September 1954, she enrolled in DePaul University and graduated with a Bachelor of Arts degree in Spanish in 1958. She taught Spanish and reading in the elementary schools until 1968. In September of the same year, she taught Latin-American and Spanish history in a high school until 1975. In the summer of 1975, she was assigned as a staff assistant of the Bilingual unit for the Department of Research and Evaluation of the Chicago Board of Education.

She received a Master of Arts in Spanish from Roosevelt University in 1965, and a Master of Arts in

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In September 1975, she was accepted as a doctoral candidate in Comparative-International Education at Loyola University of Chicago.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

If you were a student of geography and wanted to learn things about the city of Manila, you would probably take a plane and from the air get a clear view of the city. In a similar manner, a student of education who is interested in learning the educational system of a country would want to begin his study by first acquiring a bird's-eye view of the system as a whole. A perspective of the whole system would enable him to understand better the relationship between the parts and the whole and between the parts themselves.

The present chapter gives such an overview. It covers (1) the nature and scope of the system, (2) a historical perspective, (3) the structure and functions of the Department of Education, (4) the educational and economical development, and (5) the selection of the problem.

Nature and scope of the system

Section 4 of Article II of the Philippine Constitution states: "The natural right and duty of parents in rearing of the youth for civic efficiency should receive the aid and support of the government." Section 5 of Article XIV of the same document reads: "All educational institutions shall be under the supervision of and subject to regulation by the

State. The government shall establish and maintain a complete and adequate system of public education, and shall provide at least free public primary instruction, and citizenship training to adult citizens."¹ From these provisions one may gather the following about the nature of the Philippine educational system: that the bureau dispensing education in the islands should rear the youth for civic efficiency; that the State exercises control and supervision over the educational system--both public and private; that the State establishes a complete and adequate system of education; and that the educational system provides free elementary instruction.

The Philippines presently has a population of 43,000,000 people dispersed throughout a thousand islands, and a constituency with varied cultural backgrounds and with a spoken language of over eighty dialects. Its economy is based mostly on agriculture; however, industries are being developed to improve the islands' economy. The Filipinos have great faith in education and have established schools throughout the Philippines.

The Philippine educational ladder consists of three levels above kindergarten: elementary, consisting of four primary years and two intermediate grades; secondary,

¹Concepcion Aguila, Educational Legislation, (Manila: Aguila Publications, 1956), p. 54.

consisting of four years; and collegiate, consisting of four or more years for various professions.

The public schools are sometimes classified according to the source of support. Thus all elementary schools are national because they receive support from the national government fund. All secondary schools, except a few city high schools, are provincial because they are mostly supported under provincial general funds as well as by tuition fees. State colleges and universities are supported partly from tuition fees and partly from national funds.

On the basis of curricula, the schools are classified as general, vocational, technical, and professional. General secondary schools provide general education. Agricultural, trade, fishery, and home industry schools offer vocational education. Barrio schools offer non-formal education. On the higher level of education, courses are given in various colleges and universities. From the beginning the public schools of the Philippines have been administered by a centralized bureaucracy with a standardized curriculum. Schools and colleges under private auspices have been closely regulated from central or regional offices. More recently, the trend seems to be toward a degree of decentralization.

Historical perspective

As soon as the Spanish-American War ended in 1900 the mass education of the Filipinos was an important consideration

in the minds of the Americans. They believed that education was an effective way to pacify the people and to restore peace and order. They reopened schools and established more schools. The soldiers were the first teachers. When the civil government was organized, the army turned over education to the civil authorities, and the Philippine Commission created the Department of Public Instruction on January 20, 1901, by passing Act No. 74. This act established a free school system. The Executive Order No. 94 was based upon the Reorganization Act of 1947 of the national government. The Department of Public Instruction was renamed the Department of Education and was headed by the Secretary of Education. This order assigns to the Secretary of Education executive control and supervision over the Bureau of Public Schools, the Bureau of Private Schools, the Bureau of Public Libraries, the Institute of National Language, and the Philippine Historical Committee.² The Department of Education is chaired by the Secretary of Education and Culture.

The structure and functions of the Department of Education are discussed extensively in Chapter V, under the subtitle "Organization of the School System." As can be seen from the chart, the head of the system is a cabinet officer,

²Macario Naval and Gaudencio V. Aquino, Administration and Supervision for Philippine Schools, (Quezon City: Alemar and Phoenix, 1967), p. 5. The new organizational structure is found in the Philippine Yearbook, 1977, p. 230.

the Secretary of Education and Culture, and one Under-secretary of Education and Culture--all appointed by the president. The organizational chart of the Department of Education and Culture shows that there is only one undersecretary and two assistant secretaries (1976). The three promotional staff bureaus, namely, the Bureau of Public Schools, the Bureau of Vocational Education, and the Bureau of Private Schools were abolished and replaced by the Bureau of Elementary Education, the Bureau of Secondary Education, and the Bureau of Higher Education, respectively. Each bureau is managed by a director (as it was before the reorganization of the educational system), and all schools--public and private--now have a common curriculum with adequate allowances for enrichment.³

Education and economic development

Of all the executive departments in the government, the Department of Education has, within the past years, received the major portion of the total outlay of governmental expenditures. This is an indication of great concern on the part of the government to provide education for all people. The increase in governmental outlay of public funds for education is paralleled by a similar increase in the number of students and teachers since 1961 to the present.

³Ibid., p. 200.

To explain the foregoing statements, governmental expenditures for education for the fiscal year 1964-1965 were P-555,034,130 compared to the expenditures of the department in 1963-1964 which were P-507,574,510. There was an increase of P-47,459,620 or 9.3 percent. The budget appropriation by levels of education and by regions for the fiscal year 1979 amounted to P-3,620,652,827 as compared with that of the 1964-1965 budget.⁴

The enrollment in elementary, secondary, and collegiate levels of the Philippine public schools for the school year 1962-1963 was 4,905,792, an increase of 403,513 more than the enrollment in the school year 1961-1962. Enrollment in the private schools in all levels (elementary, secondary, and collegiate) for the school year 1963-1964 was 1,274,498, an increase of 138,605 over the school year 1962-1963. The total number of teachers in all levels in the public schools during the school year 1962-1963 was 147,129. This shows an increase of 14,878 students over the previous year.⁵ From the year 1964 to the present there was a continued increase of elementary and secondary schools enrollment level for both public and private schools as indicated in the latest MEC statistical bulletin, 1979, and other sources.

⁴MEC Statistical Bulletin, 1979, Budget Appropriation by Regions, 1979, (Manila: Planning Service, 1979), p. 63.

⁵Naval and Aquino, p. 203.

Dr. Carlos P. Romulo, secretary of education in 1964, asserted in his address during the 1964 National Conference on Education in Baguio, Philippines, that the nation's school population in the elementary grades was expected to almost triple between 1957 and 1977. The high school population would double within the same period.⁶ Dr. Carlos P. Romulo believed that this meant that an expansion of educational services and a doubling or tripling of educational service demands had raised a host of fundamental questions about the policies and direction in which the people wanted education to go.

Reliable statistics show that students stay longer in schools; however, according to Naval and Aquino (1967), out of every 100 children who entered Grade One in 1967, only 66 finished Grade Four and only 40 completed Grade Six, and that a greater part of the dropouts reverted to illiteracy.⁷ The rate of dropouts in some regions in the Philippines is high as shown in the 1977 Yearbook.

A number of approaches are being tried to provide education for out-of-school youth. Originally there was a Philippine folk school which emphasized not only the rudiments in manual skills but also the development of social values and proper attitudes. The classes, which were

⁶Ibid., p. 203.

⁷Ibid., p. 204.

organized in many elementary schools, serviced youths who were interested in acquiring vocational skills. The popular subjects among the boys were radio-electronics, horticulture, and poultry and swine raising. The girls enrolled in dressmaking, hairscience, and embroidery courses.

Another way of meeting the educational needs of the out-of-school youth was the opening of secondary night school classes. The village high school was initiated by Pedro Orata, an internationally-known educator. These village high schools were organized in the rural areas situated far from the provincial high schools and provided further education for the rural boys and girls. The village school, better known as the barrio school, was designed to draw more youths of high school age into the high school and eventually to prepare some for higher studies. One may ask, what then is the philosophy of the barrio school? These schools, like other secondary schools, according to Orata "give every Filipino youth the opportunity to develop his capacities to the utmost by enabling him to go further than the elementary grades to high schools and to college, too."⁸

What then is the relation of education to one's economic development? In the words of two leading authorities on the subject:

⁸ Arthur Carson, The Story of the Philippine Education, (Quezon City: New Day Publishers, 1978), p. 55.

Prosperity and progress are partly achieved through education. As the citizens of a country become better educated, they come to enjoy a richer life, characterized by economic and social prosperity. Education, therefore, has become a big enterprise in practically all countries of the world.⁹

The Philippines is one of the nations of the world that has invested heavily in the education of its citizens. It has consistently invested about one-third of its national income for education because the Filipinos have, in all their recorded history, wanted more and more education.¹⁰ The importance of education has been repeatedly recognized by its leaders like Manuel Quezon (1935) and Sergio Osmena Sr., (1935) president and vice-president, respectively, of the Commonwealth of the Philippines.¹¹

Only on the foundation of an intelligent public opinion can be built the structure of liberty and sound government.

Manuel L. Quezon

Our educational system is an integral part of the economic and political progress of our civilized and free life.

Sergio Osmena Sr.

The relevancy of the foregoing description of the overview on the Philippine school system to this study is also explained in the statement of the problem.

⁹Naval and Aquino, p. 33.

¹⁰Ibid., p. 34.

¹¹Condrado Benitez, History of the Phillippines, (Manila: Ginn and Co., 1954), p. 334.

Selection of the problem

Several factors were influential in arriving at the final identification of the problem. Throughout her experience as a secondary school Spanish teacher and as a student in education, the writer has maintained her interest in the American educational system and its educational impact on U.S. territorial conquests.

The Philippines was a territory of the United States from 1898 to 1946. This study concerns itself with the examination of American influence in shaping Philippine secondary education from 1898 to 1978. It is designed to identify how American school structures and curricula were transplanted to the Philippine school system and how much of this influence still remains.

The American mass education program in the Philippines envisaged a radical transformation of the Filipino-Spanish society. The background of this history is briefly described in Chapter III. To determine the nature of the American influence and to assess its permanent results are the basic aims of this research. In this ambitious design to reorganize the Philippine society, American successes were striking, so were some of their failures.

The history of secondary education in the Philippines may be divided into three periods: Spanish, American, and Philippine. This dissertation consists of seven chapters.

The first chapter introduces and describes an overview of Philippine education. Chapter II treats the historical background of the Philippines as a colony of Spain and a protectorate of the United States. The purpose of presenting this historical background is to furnish a framework which will be beneficial in examining the Philippine educational system and the effects of the American occupation on that system.

The aim of the third chapter is to examine the Philippine educational system under the Spanish regime, from 1550 to 1768 under the auspices of the missionaries. Then came the 1863 Royal Decree for secondary education followed by American rule from 1898 to 1941. It will be shown that the type of educational system introduced in the Philippine school system during those periods reflected the educational system prevalent in the colonial country.

Chapters IV and V touch on the same development of the Philippine secondary school system. Chapter IV shows the evolution of the secondary schools and the dimensions of American influence in shaping Philippine secondary schools (1900-1946). It includes a description of the initial policy of American occupation on the educational system of the Philippines, and describes the secondary schools, Chapter IV includes the aims, enrollment, curriculum organization, method of teaching, evaluation and survey, textbooks and instructional materials, teacher training, administration,

and funding of the schools. Chapter V treats the development of secondary education under the Philippine Republic. Because the Philippine Islands had just received its independence from the United States in less than 34 years, this chapter examines the development of the secondary schools during the following period, 1946-1978. As a result of World War II and the granting of independence to the Philippines by the United States in 1946, the life of the Filipinos was affected socially, politically, and economically. Although the evolution of the secondary education in the Philippines was developed by the Americans during the American rule, the writer feels that a main concern during this period of the new republic (1946-1978) was to develop a more Philippine character to the secondary schools. The study includes the following: reorganization of the secondary schools, new approaches to secondary education, and remnants of American influence on secondary education, in addition to aims, curricula organization, teacher training and teacher institutes, and many others. Chapter VII is the summary.

The development of secondary schools in the Philippines is of living interest at the present. Educational problems are continually arising which require for their intelligent discussion and solution an understanding of the previous experiences of the country. For this reason the author felt it useful to write an account of the secondary

education of the Philippines as there is none at present on the American influence in the shaping of the Philippine secondary school. The few works that are written deal with a part of secondary education, such as that by Dalmacio Martin: The Potentialities of the Cooperative Work-Experience Program for General Secondary Education in the Philippines; by Josefa Bautista: A Critical Analysis of the Centralized Public Education System in the Philippines with Emphasis on Secondary Education; and that by Leopoldo Cruz and Rene R. Calado: Financing Secondary Education in the Philippines 1971.

It is hoped that this work will be a valuable source of information on the history of the development of the secondary education of the Philippine Islands. The author assumes full responsibility for the limitations of this research; however, she hopes it may at least provide the readers with food for thought and perhaps throw some light on one of the more serious educational problems in the country.

Since the study attempts to reconstruct the development of the Philippine secondary education during the American rule and under the Republic of the Philippines, American and Philippine educational materials constitute the principal sources. Other primary sources are the comments stated on questionnaires sent to seventy-five educators and professionals residing in Chicago and in the Philippines.



CHAPTER II

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

In this chapter the following themes will be presented: (1) the aim of the Spanish conquest, (2) some of the main contributions from Spain to the Filipinos, (3) the goals of American colonization, and (4) the major American contribution to the Philippines. The purpose of presenting this historical background is to provide a background which will be useful in examining the Philippine educational system and the effects of the American occupation on that system.

While the Philippines¹ had geographical and human relations with its Asian neighbors, its history for the past 423 years has been linked mainly to two Western countries: Spain (1521 to 1898) and the United States (1898 to 1946), with a short interlude of the Japanese occupation (1942 to 1945).

¹Some historians have referred to the Philippines as the Pearl of the Orient Seas (Henderson, 1912; Meyer, 1935). The Philippine Archipelago, composed of 7,107 islands, lies about a thousand miles off the southeast coast of Asia, just above the equator.

The total land area is 115,758 square miles, and it is about the size of Italy or somewhat smaller than Japan proper. The population from the latest census is more than 40,000,000 people.

Brief description of the Spanish regime

The aims of the Spanish conquest were: to spread Christianity, to monopolize the spice trade of the Orient, and to be the greatest empire in the world. Through the conquest of the Philippines, the Spanish monarch, Philip II, became the first European ruler to boast that the "sun never sets upon his dominion."

The Spaniards ruled the Philippines for 377 years, from 1521-1898, a period of paradoxical Spanish colonization. Spain evangelized the tribal people of the islands so successfully that even today the Philippines is the only Christian country in the East.² The population of more than 40,000,000 are 86 percent Catholic, 5 percent Protestant, and the rest are Muslims. Spain created a centralized form of government, uniting different regions through colonization and evangelization activities. Under Spain's colonial policy, the Philippines gained the blessing of Catholic faith, laws, customs, and the Spanish language. The Filipinos under the conquistadores suffered the imposition of the tribute as well as the brutal manner of collecting it--the confiscation of the native's property and the enslavement of persons belonging to the classes of freeman and chiefs.

²Emma Blair and James A. Robertson, eds., The Philippine Islands 1493-1898, (55 vols.; Cleveland: Arthur H. Clark Co., 1903-09), 19 (1905), p. 134.

The discovery of the Philippines by Ferdinand Magellan was one of the immediate results of the attempt of Pope Alexander VI to reconcile the conflicting claims of Portugal and Spain in the newly discovered and to be discovered parts of the world. Pope Alexander VI, who became the arbitrator of the struggle for the discovery and conquest of new lands between Spain and Portugal, divided the waters and new lands of the universe between two ambitious claimants. The famous demarcation bulls drew an imaginary line from the North Pole to the South Pole through the Atlantic Ocean. The existing rights of Portugal to the east of the line were confirmed, and all lands discovered west of the line were authorized to Spain. The future of the Philippines was determined by these papal bulls and by the subsequent Treaty of Tordesillas.

Magellan, a Portuguese sailor, renounced his allegiance to Portugal and presented his plan for his expedition to the king of Spain. He was granted two hundred sixty-eight men and five ships for his expedition. On September 25, 1519, he sailed from Seville, Spain, and reached the Philippines on March 26, 1521. Magellan took possession of the Islands in honor of the king of Spain and solemnly planted a cross on the summit of a hill overlooking the sea. He named the islands "Archipelago of St. Lazarus."

The conquest of the Philippines did not begin, however, until 1565 when Legaspi and Urdaneta sought to extend the Spanish empire from bases already established in South America. Legaspi named the Philippine Archipelago "Filipinas"³ in honor of King Philip of Spain.

Bourne describes the Spanish conquest in the Philippines as follows:

Spain was inspired by religious consideration rather than by the desire for material profit and political grandeur, in its discovery and conquest of the Philippines. Spain colonized the islands to spread Christianity.⁴

Dr. Rafael Palma, member of the Philippine Commission of the early republic, also describes the Spanish colonization as the conversion of the natives to Christianity:

The motive of the Spanish colonizers, therefore, was not to exploit the islands, but to save the soul of the inhabitants. The colonization of the Philippines by the Spaniards has also been attributed to the struggle among the European powers to monopolize the spice trade of the Orient and Spain's ambition to be the greatest empire on earth. Through the acquisition of the Philippines, Philip II became the first ruler in Europe to boast that the "sun never sets upon his dominion."⁵

Blair and Robertson, on the other hand, suggest a very cautious interpretation of the easy conquest of the Philippines by the Spanish colonizers:

³Blair and Robertson, vol. 1 (1903): p. 22.

⁴Ibid., p. 8.

⁵Condrado Benitez, History of the Philippines, (Manila: Ginn and Co., 1954), p. 397.

Legaspi's expedition was successful because of his leadership, sagacity, and diplomacy. The Spanish soldiers were courageous and carried the most efficient firearms of the time which was no equal of the weapons of the natives. A field marshall by the name of Goiti, who had been in the Philippines in the earlier voyage, was a member of the expeditionary force of Legaspi. The Islands were sparsely populated and they were extremely disunited.⁶

Bourne advises that "the easy conquest of the Philippines was not only attributed to the efficient conquistadores but also to the preaching of the missionary friars and the absence of a powerful Filipino priesthood to oppose the instruction of Christianity."⁷

At this point, it can be at least said that Legaspi's expedition marked the establishment of permanent settlements in the Philippines and the beginning of continuous relation between the two countries. Magellan brought the existence of the Philippines to the attention of Spain, whereas the Legaspi expedition brought a large part of the Philippines under the Spanish sovereignty.

The period of colonization was rapid, and by the close of the seventeenth century the population of the Philippines was 7,000 as estimated by some scholars. At that time many of the 7,107 islands, especially the cities, were claimed and settled.⁸

⁶Blair and Robertson, vol. 16 (1950): 188.

⁷E.G. Bourne, "Historical Introduction," In Blair and Robertson's The Philippine Islands, 1943-1898, 55 vols. (Cleveland: Arthur H. Clark Co., 1903-1909) 1 (1903): 6.

⁸Ibid., p. 15.

The relatively swift conversion of the Filipinos to Christianity may be considered as one of the most interesting events in the history of the Philippines. Spain regarded the Christianization of the native population of new territories as one of the prime objectives of such conquest, and as a rule, the adelantados (governors) were accompanied on their expeditions by missionaries whose duty was to give attention to winning the natives over to their faith.

Hernando De Los Rios has perhaps better than any other described the impact of Christianity on the Filipinos:

It was apparent that the friars met with no opposition in most places, and that the people were quite willing to accept the new religion. The impact of Christianity on the Filipinos was so great, that every day of their lives and habits were affected by its teachings. Christian ideas of right and wrong were inculcated by the religious teachers, who became proficient in the use of the native dialects. The ancient Filipino cults rapidly lost their hold, and with their disappearance, some of the social vices and deficiencies were given up.

That the missionaries of this period (1521 to the early 16th century) were imbued with a deep spirit of self-sacrifice is the testimony of many writers. The historian Antonio Pigafetta has summed up the efforts of the missionaries to convert the Filipinos to Christianity with profound success:

⁹ Blair and Robertson, vol. 11 (1904): p.p. 196-197.

The great force which brought about the immediate and profound success of the early missionaries was their humility. The fathers refused to accept anything from the people in the nature of an endowment or other supports in terms of money or grains.¹⁰

The work of Christianizing the islands went on as fast as the work of conquest, and the natives had as little to say about one as about the other. At the time of the Spanish conquest, none of the tribes except the Moros possessed any political organization such as existed among the North American Indians.¹¹ The Filipinos had not advanced beyond the village stage of government and were divided into small tribes who lived under the rule of village chieftains. The Spanish conquest was tedious, but because of the mutual hostility of the village tribes which allowed no possibility of their organizing for resistance, no serious difficulties were encountered.

Blair and Robertson have described the Spanish system of government as one of the Spaniards' most outstanding contributions to the Philippine development at this age, namely, the institution of a strong centralized national government which unified all of the scattered units except parts of the Moro country and resulted eventually in the formation of the Filipino nation:

¹⁰Ibid., p. 45.

¹¹Carl Crow, America and the Philippines, (New York: Doubleday, Page & Company, 1914), p. 11.

The Spaniards superimposed on the existing forms of Filipino local government a chain of command leading up to the representative of the king of Spain, the governor-general. Starting with the top, the chain ran down through the encomendero, or later, the alcade-mayor and his assistants to the governor (gobernadorcillo) of village or town and finally to the chief of a barangay. The only participation of Filipinos in this chain of command was ordinarily in the lowest steps--those of the town governor and the chief of the barangay. Top legislative powers were to some extent retained by the king of Spain, in some respects conferred upon the governor-general advised by the Audiencia. The ultimate court of justice was the Audiencia, but the governor-general and the lower provincial and municipal executive officials had judicial powers as well as legislative and executive.¹²

Together with the organization, which is regarded as the mechanism of government, there was likewise brought to the Philippines by the Spaniards the great system of law which had been developed in Spain from the Roman law. Thus the Filipinos came into contact with the Roman law, one of the greatest systems of law in the world

Unlike some European powers of that era, who in one way or another acquired colonies in Asia, Spain did not leave the social structure of her new Philippine colony untouched and confined her rule largely to material benefits to be derived from the new territory. The significance of the Spanish policy is that Spain introduced an entirely new system of European laws, which were more complete and more uniform than the legal system of the pre-Spanish days. Three and a half centuries of Spanish rule did give the

¹²Blair and Robertson, vol. 5 (1903): p.p. 274-302; vol. 6 (1902): p.p. 25-44.

Filipinos a familiarity with the forms of Western government not possessed by any other nation east of Constantinople. It gave every municipality in the islands long practical experience in the operation of Occidental political institution and accustomed the masses to the governmental procedures of the West.

Although the Filipino participation in the Spanish system of government was ordinarily limited to the two lowest chains of command, the governor (gobernadorcillo) of the town or village and the chief of the barangay, the local government was headed by the chief of the barangay and the governor. With reference to the local government, the policy of Spain was to use the old units--the barangay--as the basic structure for the new government. Although he was deprived of some of his former autocratic powers, the chief, having been revered and obeyed by his subjects during the pre-Spanish period, was still the head of the barangay, and the natives were required to help him harvest his rice, build his house, and pay him tribute for the encomendero.

Above the chief was a governor (gobernadorcillo) in each village or town, who was elected annually by the votes of all married men of the village. His election to office was confirmed by the governor-general in Manila. The gobernadorcillo had administrative control over the chiefs, and also, together with his constables, administered justice in the village. Cases decided by the governor could be

appealed to the mayor (alcalde) of the province. The Filipino chiefs and the gobernadorcillos were the leaders of their people at the time of the conquest and were given limited power, but they had freedom in exercising the Spanish system of laws in accord with the Spanish government. This made them familiar with the forms of Western system of government.

Parallel to and intimately associated with the civil government was the ecclesiastical organization. At the top of the organization was the Archbishop of Manila, who was appointed by the Pope upon the recommendation of the king; below him were the bishops, who were heads of dioceses; and below the bishops were the parish priests, who administered the parishes.

Filipino priests were not involved in the ecclesiastical organization until the middle of the seventeenth century. The expulsion of the Jesuits in 1767 by a decree of the king of Spain created many vacancies in the curacies. Thus, it became necessary, more than before, to utilize the Filipino priests. Subsequently, the Filipino priests became involved with the Spanish system of laws through the Catholic Church's political system. The parish priest was the real power of the town. He represented the majesty of Spain; he supervised local elections, education, charities, taxation, and morals. Until 1762, bishops and archbishops acted as governors-general in cases of vacancies in the gubernatorial office.

During the Spanish regime there was a union of the Church and the State in the Philippines. Catholic Christianity was the state religion. Both civil and ecclesiastical authorities served God and the king, and because of this union, the clergy enjoyed political power in the colony.

The Christianization of the Philippines was a remarkable achievement of the missionaries as was the establishment of the Spanish system of laws. In these two respects, "Spain shared her civilization with the inhabitants of her new colony to an extent not enjoyed by the Asiatic peoples of the other important European colonizing powers."¹³

The Spanish colonization in the Philippines envisaged a radical transformation of native Philippine society. Inspired by their previous experience in Mexico, the Spaniards launched a sweeping social reform in the islands--a reform which was religious, political, and economical in scope.

The Spaniards put heavy emphasis on Christianization as the most effective means of incorporating the Filipinos into the Spanish culture. The Filipinos responded enthusiastically to the multiform appeal of the new religion, and the social transformation of the people could be seen in the Hispanization of their names, manner, customs, and culture. The dress, art, music, literature, and social custom of the people felt the impress of Spanish influence.

¹³Condrado Benitez, History of the Philippines, (Manila: Ginn and Company, Revised edition, 1954), p.p. 90-91.

Zaide, in his article on the Hispanization of the Philippines, wrote that:

There was hardly any phase of Filipino life which had not been affected by Spanish influence. The towns, provinces, islands, and other geographical objects were given Spanish names. The native dialects and languages were Hispanized. The people also imbibed the precepts of Spanish chivalry, religious fervor, refinement, courtesy, and respect for womanhood.¹⁴

Events leading to the coming of America to the Philippines

In the first half of the nineteenth century, the young United States pursued a vigorous policy of expansion, pushing ever westward to the Pacific. It was a policy that involved numerous dealings with foreign powers, including the purchase of the Louisiana Territory from France and a war with Mexico. During the 1850s and for a brief period after 1865, there was some evidence of interest in overseas expansion.

Up to the 1890s the United States was considered a minor power in international politics. By the first decade of the twentieth century, the U.S. moved to the company of world powers. Important and far-reaching changes in the actions of a nation cannot be explained by single causes or in simple terms. Many factors are involved. So it was with the United States of America in the 1890s as the nation began

¹⁴Gregorio Zaide, The Philippine History for High Schools, (Manila: The Modern Book Company, 1973), p. 133.

to shift its sights outward and began to embark on imperialistic ventures. Some of these events led to the coming of America to the Philippines.

The coming of Americans to the Philippines in the last years of the nineteenth century was only one scenario in the drama of American foreign policy. The acquisition of the Philippines signalled the emergence of the United States as a Pacific power. But it was not the desire to acquire territorial possessions as such which brought the United States to the Philippines; rather it was the ambition of America to have a share in the commerce of Asia, particularly China.¹⁵

One such event was related to the expanding interest in business which was prompted by the growth of industry. As factories produced more and more goods, there was an increasing demand of markets overseas and for the needed raw materials from other lands. The industrial expansion of the United States in the nineteenth century set the tone of American policy. Her immense industrial growth created a need for new markets as the domestic market could no longer absorb all its production. In 1850, the year which marked her takeoff stage in economic development, the United States ranked fifth among the industrial nations of the world, and during the last decade of the nineteenth century, she was first.

Shortly before the outbreak of the war with Spain, U.S. Senator Beveridge told a Boston audience that "American

¹⁵ Joseph R. Hayden, The Philippines; also "The United States and the Philippines: A Survey of Some Political Aspects of Twenty-five Years of American Sovereignty," (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1965), p.p. 154-160.

factories are making more than American people can use, and American soil is producing more than they can consume. Where shall we turn for consumers of our surplus?" he then asked.¹⁶ The Senator felt that the logical thing for the United States to do would be to establish trading posts throughout the world as distributing points for American products. He said that "the Pacific was the true field of our operations because Spain had an island empire, the Philippine Archipelago, which was poorly defended. As Spain's best ships were on the Atlantic side and the United States had a powerful squadron in the Pacific, . . . the Philippines were logically our first target of expansion, giving America a base at the door of all the East."¹⁷

A second factor can be described as a revival of the spirit of manifest destiny, which functioned in the 1840s to push the boundaries of the United States to the shores of the Pacific. One of the leading exponents of manifest destiny was Franklin H. Giddings, professor of sociology at Columbia University, who thought territorial expansion was as certain "as the advent of spring after winter."¹⁸ As for the Philippines, Giddings thought that retention was

¹⁶ Claude G. Bowers, Beveridge and the Progressive Era, (Boston: Houghton-Mifflin Co., 1932), p.p. 58-69.

¹⁷ Ibid., p. 70.

¹⁸ Franklin Henry Giddings, Democracy and Empire, (New York: MacMillan Co., 1900). p. 270.

our golden opportunity to perpetuate our sovereignty in the eastern archipelago, and the Oriental powers would not forget our existence and our resources.¹⁹

H. H. Powers was the leading protagonist of the expansionist theory of law of natural growth. This theory held that nations, like individuals, must grow and decay. In Power's opinion the world should belong to the efficient. It seemed to him that the American people possessed an inner power of growth, which had no equal. Powers thought that the Anglo-Saxons were the most energetic and efficient, therefore, most fit to rule the world.²⁰

The slogan "Manifest destiny" was an immeasurable piece of propaganda. The Americans felt that they were a chosen people, the providential agents for the spread of their system of politics and their general culture.²¹ So the revitalized manifest destiny of the 1890s rallied Americans to support of overseas expansion.

The war with Spain was the most significant manifestation of America's new imperialist spirit and surging aggressiveness in foreign affairs. The war was not only limited to Cuba, but concerned other Spanish possessions as well. The

¹⁹Ibid., p.p. 282-284.

²⁰H. H. Powers, "The War as a Suggestion of Manifest Destiny," American Academy of Political and Social Science Annals, XII (September 1898): p.p. 173-192.

²¹Ibid., p. 203.

war with Spain in the Pacific offered the United States an opportunity to extend her power within the strategic distances of China. Fernandez has summed up the primary objectives of the United States in embarking on a two-ocean policy:

First she sought to establish American military and commercial supremacy in the Carribean, then she endeavored belatedly and vigorously to compete with the European powers in Asian trade. While the economic penetration of Asia remained the ultimate goal, the immediate target was the fabled market of China. The American obsession with the China Trade was a nexus between Cuba and the Philippines forged by the Spanish-American War. The acquisition by the United States of these insular possessions in the Carribean and in the Pacific was, indeed, not accidental but formed part of the grand design of the so-called "Manifest Destiny" or the "Large Policy."²²

The Spanish-American War was to provide an opportunity for the realization of manifest destiny, American hegemony in the Carribean and the establishment of American power in the Pacific. This policy made the Philippines the sentinel of the Pacific: standing guard at the entrances to trade with China, Korea, French Indochina, Japan, Indoneisa, and the Malay Peninsula. The Spanish-American War marked a turning point. The Unites States had advanced to a position of economic importance.²³ There existed in the United States an exuberant feeling of jingoism exemplified

²² Alejandro Fernandez, The Philippines and the United States: The Forgoing of New Relations, (Manila: University of the Philippine Press, 1977), p.p. 56, 110.

²³ U.S. Congress, Senate, S. Doc. 148, 56th Cong., 2nd Sess., 1901, p. 46.

in the statement that the "flag must be hauled down."²⁴ This feeling was a significant part of the policy enlarging the American commercial prospects and the finding of new fields for export trade.

United States acquisition of the Philippines from Spain, 1898

The United States entered the Spanish-American War in 1898. By virtue of that war, the Philippines was transferred to the United States in payment of twenty million dollars to Spain. On the tenth of December, 1898, the Treaty of Peace between the United States and Spain was signed. Article III of the treaty ceded the whole Philippine Islands to the United States.

On December 21, 1898, President McKinley issued a proclamation asserting the American sovereignty over the Philippines, in which he said that with the signature of the Treaty of Peace, the future control, disposition, and the government of the Philippines are ceded to the United States. The document stated that the United States would maintain the strong arm of authority to repress disturbance and overcome all obstacles. However, the mission of the United States was one of benevolent assimilation, and the Filipinos were assured the full measure of individual rights and liberties.

²⁴Ibid., p. 66.

Having thus acquired the Islands, the United States turned her attention to the formulation of a suitable colonial policy, giving the Filipinos as much self-government as they could possibly exercise as well as training in democracy. The implementation of a colonial policy was difficult according to the following statements of LeRoy:

The most immediate problem facing the American leadership was the decision of opinion on the home front over the acquisition of the islands. It bothered the conscience of many Americans that their government should subjugate a race of seven million aliens with a totally different culture and a way of life eight thousand miles from American shores.²⁵

There was a strong anti-imperialist feeling among Americans in the home front. In order to moderate the outcry of imperialism against the McKinley administration, the importance of the Philippines as a stepping-stone to the China market and her economic significance were less emphasized. In keeping with this posture, Senator Henry Cabot Lodge, Sr. cautioned his colleagues in the U.S. Congress to de-emphasize the enormous benefits of the Philippines to the American trade, industries, and labor.

President McKinley sought to appease his critics by excluding imperialism from the government's program and by imposing benevolent assimilation as the preferred manner of extending American sovereignty over the islands. He instructed the First Philippine Commission to facilitate the most

²⁵James A. LeRoy, The Americans in the Philippines, (New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1914), p. 298.

humane, peaceful, and effective extension of American authority throughout the Philippine Islands.

The First Philippine Commission, otherwise known as the Schurman Commission, was composed of Dr. Jacob Schurman of Cornell University, president of the Commission; Major-General Elwell S. Otis, military-governor of the Philippines; Rear Admiral George Dewey, commander of the Asiatic squadron; Charles Denby, former minister to China; and Dean C. Worcester, professor at the University of Michigan, who had made two scientific expeditions to the Philippines.

The Schurman Commission was sent to the Philippines to aid the U.S. Government in shaping the Islands' policy and to cooperate with the naval and military authorities at Manila in the effective extension of American sovereignty over the Archipelago. The Commission reached Manila on March 4, 1899. In harmony with its policy of conciliation, the Commission issued a proclamation to the people of the Philippines on April 4, which said that the aim of the American government was the well-being, the prosperity, and the happiness of the Filipinos and their elevation to a position among civilized peoples of the world. This goal the American government proposed to achieve through "the assurance of peace and order; by the guaranty of civil and religious liberty; by the establishment of justice; by the cultivation of letters, science; by the expansion of industrial pursuits, trade, and commerce; by the improvement of

the means of internal communication; by the development of the great natural resources of the archipelago, with the aid of modern inventions."²⁶

The proclamation appealed to those Filipinos who were prepared to acquiesce in American rule. Many were willing to give the new program a trial, since the Commission announced that, in carrying a program, the American government would consult the views and wishes, would secure the advice and cooperation, and would seek aid of the Filipinos themselves.

Under American colonial rule, the Philippines was highly influenced by the United States' political institutions, including a superstructure of civil rights, a civil service based on merit, just taxation, and fair administration of justice, which granted the Filipinos an increasing share of management of their internal affairs and development of a system of popular education. The prevailing concern of the United States was to make the Philippines the show window of American democracy in Asia.

Dean C. Worcester, author of the book Philippines: Past and Present, wrote the following paragraph:

To achieve this aim, the colonial administrator trained the Filipinos in self-government, introduced a policy of mass education, promoted the health and welfare of the native population, and undertook a massive infrastructural program. These were the major components of

²⁶Philippine Commission Report, 1900, vol. 1, p.p. 3-5.

American colonial administration in the Philippines. It was a distinct program in the history of colonialism, the progressiveness of which drew worldwide attention, contrasted strongly with the harshness of the European colonial policy elsewhere in Asia and boosted the image and influence of the United States.²⁷

Good government and the preparation of the people for self-government within the framework of the acceptance of American sovereignty formed the cornerstone of the Republican policy towards the Philippines. The development of political power upon the Filipinos was made contingent upon demonstrated capacity for it. This policy was one of the components of American colonialism and was called "Filipinization."²⁸

Filipinization was effected first at the municipal level, then at the provincial level, and finally at the national level of government. On the strength of the evidence of the Filipino interest for self-government, the Philippine Commission passed a Municipal Code, Act 82 as the first step in the Filipinization program. The Filipinos were granted the right to elect their municipal officials, thus giving them a broad base of participation in the government. The provinces initially remained under the control of the Americans, with provision for gradual but progressively more substantial Filipino participation. At the national level,

²⁷ Dean Worcester, The Philippines: Past and Present, (New York: MacMillan Co., 1930), p. 667.

²⁸ Fernandez, p.p. 367-368.

Filipinization was composed of an American governor-general, a commission of Americans and four Filipinos, and the Philippine Assembly, and elective, all-Filipino legislative body which was created in 1907. By 1913, in the Supreme Court, the chief justice was a Filipino along with other Filipino justices in the nine-man bench. The entire government was 72 percent Filipino and 28 percent American.²⁹

Filipinization thus broadened the foundation of Filipino participation in government, and indeed was a vital step in the tutelage of the Filipinos for democracy and for future political responsibility. With Filipinization came indoctrination in the merits of American concepts in politics. It was, in effect, training the Filipinos in self-government within the scope of American view of democratic institutions.³⁰

There was much opposition on the part of local Americans to the new policy of civil government and the appointment of Filipinos to public office. The Americans opposing the new policy were those who had fought against the Filipinos and felt that they had conquered the country and were entitled to help govern it. Governor Taft pointed out that he was carrying out President McKinley's instructions as to the preparation of the people for self-government.

²⁹Ibid., p. 413.

³⁰Ibid., p. 415.

He admitted some shortcomings in the municipal and provincial administration of the new government, but stated that in spite of these temporary defects, the government was furnishing to the people "protection to life, liberty, and property, and opportunity to obtain justice through courts, and the right to pursue their usual vocations."³¹

As early as 1899, Jacob Gould Schurman, Chairman of the First Philippine Commission, stated that he would have liked the President of the United States to promise the Filipinos the opportunity to learn to govern themselves, "and that when the lesson is learned, when they are capable of exercising all the functions of an independent nation, they shall have independence should the Filipinos then desire it."³² Since that time, debate on the independence question revolved around the capacity of the Filipinos for self-government, and American leaders devised and formulated criteria by which to judge such capacity. "The criteria included political maturity, stability of political process and of public administration, national security, economic stability, and treatment of minority."³³ These

³¹ Benitez, p. 302.

³² Schurman's letter to David Hill, April 16, 1899, (Schurman Papers at Cornell University).

³³ Francis Burton Harrison, The Corner-Stone of the Philippine Independence, (New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1936), p.p. 331-334.

criteria were subjective and arbitrary; however, it did not deter the Filipino people in their aspiration for independence. From 1919 to 1934 they campaigned for independence and sent twelve independence missions to America. As a result of their missions and campaign, the Commonwealth of the Philippines was finally established in 1935. This was a preparatory step to the establishment of the Philippine Republic on July 4, 1946.

Commonwealth of the Philippines 1935-1946

1935 to 1946 was a period of partial independence of the Philippines under the Commonwealth.³⁴ Still under American sovereignty, the Filipino people now for the first time since the sixteenth century assumed practically complete responsibility for their own government. Rapid progress was seen in all the phases of modern life in preparation for complete independence.

November 15, 1935, marks an important milestone in Philippine history. On that day Secretary of War George Dern, representing the United States government and in the presence of a vast throng of people including Vice-President John N. Garner and other high Washington officials, promulgated the proclamation of President Roosevelt announcing the election of officers for the new government. President

³⁴Ibid., p.p. 331-334.

Manuel Quezon, Vice-President Sergio Osmena, and the members of the new National Assembly assumed office, and the newly-born Commonwealth of the Philippines began to function.

The existence of the Commonwealth was purposely limited to a little over ten years or until July 1946, when by the terms of the Tydings-McDuffie Act,³⁵ the Republic of the Philippines was scheduled to replace it. The Filipinos were not only given control of their own internal affairs but were also assured of a definite date on which complete independence would take effect.

The significance of the day was adequately expressed by Governor Murphy in his message to the legislature at its final session on November 14, 1935:

A splendid chapter in the history, in which this body under able leaders has played a distinguished part, is now coming to a close. With a large and growing population, expanding industry and agriculture, easy communication and increasing wealth, a government financially stable and sound, an enlightened press and an informed and patriotic citizenry, the sinews of a statehood and the elements of a strong national life have been provided. We place in the hands of our successors a rich estate, a high trust, and a glorious privilege to preserve and administer this government that we have built together upon the faith and confidence of the American people.

The United States Government is now entrusting direct management of domestic affairs to the newly

³⁵ Tydings-McDuffie Act was accepted by the Philippine Legislature in a concurrent resolution of May 1, 1934. In accordance with this Act, a constitution was to be formulated through a popularly elected convention. The Act was to provide a transition of ten years period in which the Philippines could make such adjustments necessary to pave a way for a stable future republic.

elected representatives of the Philippine people--the President and members of the National Assembly. Their success and the success of the Commonwealth will rest upon the fine hopes and enthusiasm of this moment. It will require deep and abiding loyalty to the principles of sound finance and social justice, freedom from measures that are selfish and oppressive, steadfast devotion to the ideals and principles of democracy.³⁶

In his inaugural address Manuel Quezon, President of the Commonwealth stated:

We are witnessing the final stage in the fulfillment of the noblest undertaking ever attempted by a nation in dealing with a subject people. The government which we are inaugurating today is only a means to an end, its instrumentality placed in our hands to prepare ourselves fully for the responsibilities of complete independence. We shall build a government that will be just, honest, efficient and strong so that the foundation of the coming of the Republic may be firm and enduring, a government, indeed, that must satisfy not only the passing needs of the hour, but also exacting demands of the future.³⁷

One point, however, was clear. The great and happy venture of the American and the Filipino people was not yet ended. With an altered and broader autonomy, the Philippine government, under the American flag, shared in the exercise of sovereignty. The United States retained control over foreign affairs, defense, and finance. The day-to-day tasks of running the government, particularly local affairs, were left in the hands of the Filipinos with the full confidence and support of the people and the government of the United States.

³⁶Frank Murphy's Message to the Legislature, November 14, 1935 (Tydings-McDuffie Act), Public Law No. 127, 73rd Congress.

³⁷Condrado Benitez, Philippine History, (Manila: Ginn and Company, 1954), p. 311.

The Commonwealth was a success. The enlightened American tutorship over the years had produced an efficient apparatus of government and administration. It assisted the Filipino leaders in their ultimate task of ruling the economic situation, which was propitious for a changeover to an all-Philippine administration. In 1941, in the second election of the new regime, Quezon and Osmena³⁸ were reelected to office. Amid the crashing echoes of war, the second presidential inaugural ceremonies of the Commonwealth were held on December 30, 1941, at Malinta Tunnel, Corregidor.³⁹

Independence of the Philippines - 1946

It should be recalled that the Tydings-McDuffie Act provided for a Commonwealth government preparatory to granting independence after a ten-year period. On July 4, 1946, the Philippine Islands formally became independent "amidst the cheers of about 300,000 people, the salvos of guns, and the echoes of ringing bells."⁴⁰ The epic event was witnessed by the dignitaries of 27 nations. It marked the climax of

³⁸House in the first all-Filipino Legislature in 1916. Both men were trained in law and were tempered by a long and honorable opposition to American control.

³⁹Small fortified island in the Philippines at the entrance of Manila Bay. On December 24, 1941, President Quezon, acting on the advice of General MacArthur and the Council of State, removed the seat of government to Corregidor.

⁴⁰Gregorio Zaide, Philippine History, (Manila: The Modern Book Co., 1965), p. 353.

the long struggle for freedom by the Filipinos. Representing the United States were the Honorable Paul V. McNutt, last United States High Commissioner and first American Ambassador to the Philippines; United States Postmaster General Robert E. Hannegan; and a delegation of members of the United States Congress, including Senator Millard E. Tydings, co-author of the Philippine Independence Law.

No better interpretation of the implication of the Philippine Independence has been made than by General MacArthur, who on that occasion said: "Let history record this event in the sweep of democracy through the earth as foretelling the end of the mastery over peoples by power of force alone--the end of empire as the political chain which binds the unwilling weak to the unyielding strong. Let it be recorded as one of the great turning points in the advance of civilization in the age-long struggle of man for liberty, for dignity and human betterment."⁴¹

Manuel Roxas was inaugurated as the first President of the Republic of the Philippines. In his address, he reminded the Filipino people of the proclamation of the President of the United States that the full independence would be granted the Philippines upon the fact that the people of the Philippines have clearly demonstrated their capacity for self-government. The long hoped for promise of

⁴¹Benitez, p.p. 472-473.

America to recognize and sponsor our independence became a living reality.⁴² President Harry S. Truman issued on behalf of the United States a proclamation withdrawing American sovereignty and recognizing the Philippine independence. The proclamation read:

"Whereas the United States of America by the Treaty of Peace with Spain of December 10, 1898, did acquire sovereignty over the Philippines;

"Whereas the act of Congress approved March 24, 1934, known as the Philippine Independence Act, directed that on the 4th of July immediately following a ten-year transitional period leading to the independence of the Philippines, the President of the United States of America should by proclamation withdraw and surrender all rights of possession, supervision, jurisdiction, control, or sovereignty of the United States in and over the territory and people of the Philippines, except certain reservations therein or thereafter authorized to be made, and, on behalf of the United States of America, should recognize the independence of the Philippines;

"Now therefore, I, Harry S. Truman, President of the United States of America, acting under and by virtue of the authority vested in me by the aforesaid act of Congress, do proclaim that, in accord with and subject to the reservations provided for in the applicable statutes of the United States;

". . . and on behalf of the United States of American, I do hereby recognize the independence of the Philippines as a separate and self-governing nation and acknowledge the authority and control over the same government instituted by the people thereof, under the Constitution now in force."⁴³

⁴²Ibid., p.p. 473-474.

⁴³Fernandez, p.p. 216-217.

Conclusion

In the process of colonization, there is a conscious effort to transplant to the colony the culture and institution of the colonizing power. This is done in the assumption that the colonized people cannot be ruled with guns behind their backs. A far more lasting bond results from the development of cultural affinities between two peoples and is less costly. Once the colonized people accept the presumed superior qualities of the colonizer's civilization, their minds and hearts would also have been conquered, as a result they would be more willing to submit to colonial authority.

Spain ruled over the Philippines over three and a half centuries. She had accomplished all her aims in colonizing the islands. The Philippines gained through the Spanish colonization Christianity--the conversion of the natives to Christianity, introduction of the Spanish system of government and laws, Spanish culture is vividly seen through arts, architecture, literature, and Spanish language. Social influences are reflected in the way the Filipinos dress, in the food, in music, in folk dance, and in the use of Christian names.

The United States took over the Philippines from Spain in 1898, and ruled the islands for forty-eight years. In this short period of colonizing the Philippines, America had realized her initial aims. The United States made major

contributions to the betterment of life in the Philippines in the areas of self-government, increasing participation of Filipinos in government, development of public health and welfare, introduction of modern machineries to increase agricultural production, development of industries, creation of banks, and reform of currency.

The United States undertook a gigantic public works program for the development of transportation and communication facilities. The infrastructural program was believed essential to the sociocultural and political integration of the Filipino policy, an important prerequisite of a democratic system.

The United States tried deliberately to make American culture attractive to the Filipinos with the idea of getting them to accept American institutions, ideas, practices, and American rule. Spain in the Philippines feared any large-scale extension of Castillian culture to the Filipinos would undermine her authority. The Americans, on the contrary, opened her way of life for all Filipinos to appreciate and appropriate for their own. The result was the flowering of a new culture in the Orient, the Filipino-American civilization, and it is seen where popular passion of the Filipinos for things American--pop music, Levi slacks, basketball, American appliances, to name a few, is as vigorous as ever. American holidays and fiestas. Among these are Washington's birthday, Memorial Day, Independence Day, and Thanksgiving

Day. To the Filipino people, the long lasting gains from the American colonization of the Philippines is their freedom and their long awaited independence.

CHAPTER III

PHILIPPINE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

(1550-1941)

This chapter examines the Philippine educational system under the Spanish Regime (1550-1898) and under the American Rule (1898-1941). It will be seen that the type of educational system introduced into the Philippine Islands during these two periods reflected the educational system that existed in the colonial country. The major laws and decrees promulgated during these periods are described.

Education under the Spanish regime

The Spanish colonization in the Philippines envisaged a radical transformation of the native Philippine society. Inspired by their previous experience in Mexico, the Spaniards launched a sweeping social reform in the islands--a reform which was religious, political, and economic in scope. The primary concern of education under the Spanish rule was to teach the new religion to all the people and to educate the sons of the Spaniards.

Education for the elites and Christianization

When the Spanish conquistadores accomplished their task of establishing the Spanish rule, one of their first concerns was the establishment of schools for their children. The main objective for these schools was the rearing in virtue and letters of the Spanish youth. Royal decrees on education were first carried out during the period from 1550 to 1768 under the control of the missionaries. From 1869 to 1898 education was controlled by the Spanish government.

In the history of the Spanish rule over the Philippines, one can find many educational decrees which came directly from Spain. The decrees, generally vague and inadequate, ordered the missionaries to teach the Spanish language, to propagate the Christian doctrine, to build schoolhouses, and to compel the children to attend school. Alzona relates these royal decrees in her "Education in the Philippines," under Founding of Schools:

The earliest of these decrees was dated July 17, 1550, issued in the name of Charles I, later Emperor Charles V of the Holy Roman Empire, which was for all overseas possessions of Spain. It ordered the use of the Castillian language in the teaching of the Christian doctrine, and the assignment of sacristans (sextons) as teachers. There was another decree by Philip IV in 1634 exhorting the bishops and archbishops to teach the Filipinos the Christian doctrine and the Spanish language. Following this decree was the decree of November 4, 1636, which ordered that all laws regarding public education should be enforced and failure to comply with this provision, the responsible officials would be called to account. It stated further the reasons for the

enforcement of the decrees--that a knowledge of reading and writing, of the Christian doctrine, and the Spanish language was essential to the welfare of the Filipinos and the glory of Spain.¹

The missionaries, aside from propagating the Christian religion, served as the first teachers of the Filipinos. Christian education was the missionaries' greatest interest. The importance of establishing schools in the Philippines was stressed. In 1581, the Jesuit order established missions in the Philippines, namely, in the Visayan regions. Morga reported on the Jesuit order and wrote about the establishment of the first secondary schools in the Philippines by the Jesuits.² The Jesuits, or members of the Society of Jesus, were the pioneers in the founding of secondary schools. Morga described them as undisputed educators and stated that their leadership in education was due to their efficient organization and their sound pedagogical principles, which were considered the most advanced at that time.

Chirino, in his "Relacion," gives a similar account of the work of the Dominican Order in establishing secondary schools.³ The Dominicans were the next religious order to found a secondary school in Manila in 1611. This was the

¹Encarnacion Alzona, History of Education in the Philippines 1565-1930, (Manila: 1932), p.p. 20-22.

²Blair and Robertson, eds., Vol. I, p. 41; Vol. XXX, p.p. 138, 139, 172, and 174.

³Ibid., Vol. 45, p.p. 184, 185.

Collegio de Nuestra Senora del Rosario, which afterwards became the College of Santo Tomas, and is now the University of Santo Tomas, the oldest existing university in the Philippines. Another school administered by the Dominicans was the Colegio de San Juan de Letran. It was founded in 1630. It still exists, and it is the oldest private school in secondary education in the Philippines. The subjects taught were Latin, Greek grammar, logic, philosophy, and elocution.

Education of women

Although the royal decrees stressed the founding of boys' schools, the education of women was not neglected. Besides the common schools, there were boarding schools for girls similar to those existing in Western Europe. The first boarding school to be founded was the Convent of Santa Potenciana. It opened in 1591 in compliance with a royal decree which ordered the governor-general to establish a school and home for the Spanish girls, especially for the orphans. In the royal decree was the following passage, which revealed the prevailing ideal of education for women:

Upon arriving in the Philippine Islands, you shall ascertain how and where and with what endowment a convent for the shelter of girls may be founded, so that those who should come from here and those born there may

live in it decently and, after being instructed, may go out therefrom to be married and bear children.⁴

In 1632 another school and home for women was founded. This was the Colegio of Santa Isabel, which was considered one of the best schools for girls during the Spanish era. In subsequent years more girls' colleges were founded such as the Beaterio of Saint Catherine, Concordia College, College of Santa Rosa, and the Beaterio of Saint Ignatius (established by the Jesuits in 1699). The beaterio was a house for women who preferred a special devotion to a particular saint. These schools took in orphan girls and taught them reading, writing, sewing, and other household work as well as catechism. The orphans performed housework in return for their instruction and board. The instructional curriculum of the girls' colleges and beaterios was of a practical nature. As the chief aims of these institutions were to prepare women either for motherhood or for religious life, there was little academic instruction. The three R's, Christian doctrine, and needlework comprised the whole curriculum.⁵

⁴Manuel Cuerva Artigas, Historia de Filipinas, (Manila: University of Santo Tomas Press, 1911), p. 151.

⁵Ibid., p.p. 22-23.

Universities founded

Shortly after the establishment of the college for boys, two universities were founded. The University of San Ignacio, which began as a college in 1589, was elevated to the rank of a university in 1621 by Pope Gregory XV.⁶ The second to be founded was the Dominican-controlled University of Santo Tomas, which began as a college in 1611; it was raised to the rank of a university in 1645 by Pope Innocent X upon the behest of King Philip IV. In the University of Santo Tomas, dogmatic and moral theology, philosophy, and the humanities were taught. The humanities included grammar, rhetoric, and poetry.⁷ The influence of the Renaissance on the university was shown in the inclusion in its curriculum of studies not found in medieval education.

Education for the masses - Decree of 1863

The Education Decree of 1863 marked the beginning of a new era in the history of education in the Philippines. Before the promulgation of this decree, the government did not maintain an adequate system of elementary instruction for the masses. This work was left entirely in the hands of the priests or curates of the parishes. There was no particular

⁶Alzona, p.p. 28-30.

⁷Alzona, p.p. 67-78.

law governing the elementary education. The Educational Decree of 1863 was the most notable attempt of the Spaniards to reform the educational system of the Philippines. The royal decree ordered the establishment of a complete system of education starting from the primary, elementary, secondary, and higher education schools, and vocational/technical education. It also provided for government supervision and control of these schools and for the establishment of teacher training centers.

Eufronio Alip commented on the improvement of education after the promulgation of the Educational Decree of 1863. He summarizes them as follows:⁸

1. The desire of the civil government to encourage the Filipinos to use the Spanish language.
2. An order of the superior government for compulsory attendance of all children from age six to twelve.
3. Primary schools were classified into three groups: entrada, ascenso, and termino.
4. Supervision of the public education system was entrusted to a body known as the Superior Council of Primary Schools.
5. A board was created to be responsible for the purchase and distribution of materials, prizes, and equipment for the public elementary schools.
6. An order to build schoolhouses in every town.
7. The decree prescribed the subjects in the curriculum.

⁸ Eufronio Alip, Political and Cultural History of the Philippines, 1762-1948, (Manila: Alip and Brion Publications, 1948), p.p. 51-56.

8. The method of teaching to be improved.
9. Analysis of the textbooks used and to be used.
10. The royal decree of 1863 ordered the establishment of a normal school for men, which provided a long-felt need for training school teachers for the primary schools.

Primary schools of 1863.⁹ Primary education in the Philippine Islands secured no real foothold until 1863 when, by royal decree, a school system originally planned for Cuba was extended to the Philippines. It made provisions for the beginnings of primary instruction in all of the municipalities in the Philippines. According to this decree, the primary schools were of three classes: entrada, ascenso, and termino. In towns of at least 5,000 inhabitants the boys' schools were of the entrada class; in towns of 10,000 inhabitants, ascenso; in towns of 20,000 inhabitants, termino. The girls' school followed the same classification, and the teachers were likewise classified in accordance with the rank of the schools in which they taught.

The primary schools were devoted to the teaching of Christian doctrine, Spanish, writing, reading, arithmetic, geography, Spanish history, agriculture, good manners and right conduct, and music. In the girls' primary schools, the curriculum was almost identical to that of the boys' schools, except that needlework was substituted for agriculture,

⁹ Blair and Robertson, Vol. 55, p. 53.

geography, and Spanish history. The student first learned Christian doctrine and prayers. The emphasis on the teaching of this subject was due to the fact that the "objective of elementary education was to produce docile, God-fearing men and women who would follow blindly the counsels of their parish priests and confessors."¹⁰

One of the most popular of the colonial school booklets was the Cartilla. This tiny booklet contained the alphabet, syllables, and prayers. The pupil was first required to be able to read the alphabet forwards and backwards and to identify any single letter which the teacher might indicate. After mastering the letters of the alphabet, the student would be required to learn the formation of syllables, then the combination of syllables into words. The student was expected to read and memorize sentences, but comprehension of sentence meaning was not demanded. Writing was learned by copying the printed page. Using a ruled paper, especially made for this purpose, the teacher wrote the letter to be copied by the pupil. The pupil was not permitted to write any other letter until he had copied accurately the model letter. "The emphasis on writing well-formed letters is the explanation for the much-praised excellent penmanship of many Filipinos during the Spanish era."¹¹

¹⁰Compania de Jesus, Manila de la Infancia, (Manila: 1893), p. 67.

¹¹Alzona, p. 104.

Rigid discipline was the rule rather than the exception in the schools of the period. The teachers followed closely the saying, "Spare the rod and spoil the child," which was the class motto. A smooth piece of bamboo or wood or rattan was always within reach of the teacher. It was generally used to whip the palm, leg, or any part of the body of the child who failed to recite his lesson satisfactorily or who had done some mischief. This was only one form of punishment. The students were taught to greet the teacher upon entering the schoolhouse and upon leaving, to bid him goodbye.

The colonial educational experience in the New England schools was somewhat similar to the educational experience of the primary schools in the Philippines in 1863. It appears that the curriculum for both New England and the Philippine primary schools included Christian doctrine, reading, writing, and the alphabet. Both considered education as an instrument of religious indoctrination and controlled the students by means of harsh discipline prescribed by religious doctrine. These were the primary schools for the masses during the period 1863 to about 1896, which represented the effort of the Spanish government to extend to the masses the kind of education that was also current in Latin Europe.

Secondary education of 1863. The organization of secondary studies in the Philippines was ordered by royal decree of May 20, 1863. The decree confirmed the power of the

University of Santo Tomas to supervise all secondary schools in the islands. On January 28, 1867, provision was also made for the regulation of secondary schools. These schools were divided into two classes: public and private. The University of Santo Tomas was considered a public institution. The Royal College of San Jose, the College of San Juan de Letran, the Ateneo Municipal, the College of Bacolor, and the College of San Felipe de Austria were classed as private schools.

The private schools were divided into two classes. The first class consisted of those private schools which offered the complete course leading to a bachelor's degree; the second class encompassed those which offered only a part of the course for a bachelor's degree.

In 1867 instructional material and educational personnel were greatly modified, and the college was declared one of a secondary character. By the Moret decree of 1870, an institute of public secondary education, the Philippine Institute, was established in Manila.¹² This institute absorbed the College of San Juan de Letran, Ateneo Municipal de Manila, Nautical Academy, and the Academy of Drawing,

¹²Camilo Osias, Education During the Spanish Rule, (Manila: Ginn and Co., 1919), p. 49.

painting, Bookkeeping, and Languages. (See footnote for the curricula of studies adopted.)¹³

The length of secondary studies was five years. The completion of these courses entitled the student to take an examination for the degree of Bachelor of Arts. Oral examination was almost the universal system used during the Spanish rule. The decree of the general government regulated the system of examination for those who aspired to the bachelor's degree.

The Moret Decree thus secularized secondary education and removed it from the control of the University of Santo Tomas and other religious corporations. The religious corporations were indignant at the colonial minister, the author of the decrees in 1870. Their representatives became active in Madrid in order to oust Moret from office and abrogate the unpopular decrees.¹⁴ Two influential members of the Dominican Order in Madrid convinced the Madrid government of the great disaster that the Moret decrees would bring. They alleged

¹³Curricula of studies were taken from the Report of the Commissioner of Education, (Manila: 1897-98), p. 976. First year-Latin and Spanish grammar, first course; Christian doctrine and sacred history. Second year: Latin and Spanish grammar, second course; descriptive geography; Christian morality. Third year: Latin analysis and translation and rudiments of Greek; universal history and history of Spain, arithmetic and algebra. Fourth year: rhetoric poetry, Spanish and Latin composition; geometry and rectilinear trigonometry; and social ethics. Fifth year: psychology, logic, moral philosophy, physics and chemistry, natural history, French and English.

¹⁴Osias, p. 50.

that Spain's power over her colonies would vanish if the control over public instruction were withdrawn from the religious corporation.¹⁵ The archbishop of Manila seconded the protest and sent a petition signed by the local church dignitaries. The Madrid government heeded the protest and the Moret Decree was shelved. The attempt to secularize the secondary schools was abandoned. Secondary instruction and curriculum remained unchanged and under Spanish control. The University of Santo Tomas retained its supervisory powers until the end of the Spanish regime.

Normal school for men of 1863. Under the provisions of the Royal Decree of 1863, the normal school for men was formally opened in January 1865, and its administration was entrusted to the Jesuit fathers. The Jesuits had been expelled from the islands in 1767 by the Spaniards, but the Royal Decree of 1852 enabled the return of the members of the Jesuit Order to the Philippines in 1859.¹⁶

The training of the prospective teachers was improved by the establishment of a primary school in connection with the normal school, which was authorized by a decree of the superior civil government in March 1866. The elementary school served as a training department in which student teachers were required to do practice teaching for six months.

¹⁵Ibid., p. 54.

¹⁶Alzona, p.p. 130-133.

Education under the American rule

Education changed significantly with the imposition of the American regime. Within three weeks after the capitulation of Manila, the military government reopened seven schools--a phase of its pacification operation. Although the new regime maintained the Spanish system of instruction at first, a transition to English was gradually accomplished. Military officers continued as the superintendents of schools, and the enlisted men, who were supervised by the chaplains and the officers, functioned as instructors until they were replaced by American teachers who were recruited from the United States. The 766 teachers, popularly known as the Thomasites, arrived in the Philippines on the United States Transport Thomas on August 23, 1901. They were described as "a second army of occupation and were surely the most remarkable cargo ever carried to an Oriental colony."¹⁷ Charles Elliott described these American teachers:

They were mostly young, vigorous, and full of enthusiasm for the work. They had been gathered from all walks of life hurriedly. A fair proportion were college graduates and most of them had some experience in teaching. Many were young women; a few were middle-aged men who brought their families with them. There were some among them who had not realized their anticipations of fame and fortune in the homeland and were seeking a new start of life, and some were merely adventurers attracted by good pay and the opportunity to see the world under novel conditions.¹⁸

¹⁷Charles Elliott, The Philippines to the End of the Commission Government, (New York: The Bobb-Merrill Company Publishers, 1917), p. 229.

¹⁸Ibid., p. 230.

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¹⁸Ibid., p. 230.

The military government gave way to the civil government in April 1900, when President McKinley appointed the Second United States Philippine Commission. It was designed to supplement the work of the Army and establish a civil government which would exist until Congress assumed charge. The members of the Second United States Philippine Commission were Luke L. Wright, Dean C. Worcester, Henry C. Ide, Bernard Moses, and William Taft, who became the first civil governor-general of the islands. The attention of the Commission was directed especially to certain vital questions which required immediate consideration, and one of these was education.

In his instruction to the Commission, President McKinley said:

It will be the duty of the Commission to promote and extend and, as they find occasion to improve the system of education already inaugurated by the military authorities. In doing this they should regard as of first importance the extension of a system of primary education which shall be free to all, and which shall tend to fit the people for the duties of citizenship and for the ordinary avocation of a civilized community.¹⁹

The Philippine Commission was a legislative body of the civil government which laid the foundation of the present school system. It enacted the organic school law of the Philippines, Act No. 74. The Commission also immediately established a Department of Instruction in charge of a general

¹⁹Ibid., p. 225.

superintendent, eighteen division superintendents, a superior advisory board, and local school boards in the municipalities. Dr. Fred W. Atkinson was made general superintendent of schools.

Aims of education under American regime

The ultimate aim of education under the American rule was a new system of mass public education. Common schools were to be established everywhere and every child was to be taught. The curriculum was to be patterned on that of the American public schools, and part of its general objectives was to inculcate into the people a sense of civic responsibility and self-government. Education was also to be given a more utilitarian emphasis through the inclusion in the curriculum of courses in character education, industrial arts, physical education, and foundation of citizenship. In view of the multiplicity of languages spoken in the different regions of the country, for the sake of expediency, "English should be used as the medium of instruction."²⁰ In adopting this policy the government had two objectives: (a) to unify the people by giving them a common language, and (b) to train the people in the ways of democracy in order to facilitate the establishment of a democratic form of government.

²⁰Dean C. Worcester, The Philippines Past and Present, (New York: The MacMillan Company, 1930), p. 400.

It is believed that since English was the language of democracy, it would serve better to spread and to develop democracy. The schools were to be public and secular, adequate for the population, and open to all on a purely democratic basis. Secondary and higher education were to follow in due course.

The Department of Instruction was given control of all schools that had already been established and forbade the teaching of religion in the public schools. It was remarkable that so little difficulty was experienced in secularizing the schools in the Philippines when the majority of the people were Roman Catholics. Alzona has summarized the following restrictions in the teaching of religion in the public schools under the American regime in History of Education in the Philippines:

No public school teacher shall teach or conduct religious services in a school building or to require any pupil to attend and receive religious instruction. But the priest or minister of any church established in town might, in person or by a representative, teach religion in an orderly manner in the school building for one and a half hours, three times a week to those pupils whose parents, in writing, requested it.²¹

Education under the American civil government may be conveniently divided into five periods: the first period, from 1901 to 1910, was a period of expansion and education for self-government; the second, between 1911 and 1918, may be termed as a period of adjustment and education for economic

²¹Alzona, p. 210.

development; the third, from 1919-1922, may be called the second period of expansion; the fourth, from 1923-1936, the period of adaptation and assessment of the Philippine educational system; and the fifth, from 1935 to 1941, was the Commonwealth and compulsory education period. The Americans recognized in education a potential instrument for introducing the Filipinos to democracy as a way of life and training in the art of self-government. The educational system would mold a people's national character and develop their fullest intellectual potentials but also to make them conform to the political values and the complexity of social and economic institutions of the mother country, America.

The first period from 1901 to 1910, a period of first expansion and education for self-government. The system of education which had been inaugurated by the military authorities was to be promoted and extended, giving attention first to free primary education, which would fit the people for citizenship. Dr. Fred Atkinson, who succeeded Captain Albert Todd, served as the first general superintendent of schools of the newly created Department of Public Instruction. On October 8, 1902, Act No. 477 was passed amending Act No. 74.²² A Bureau of Education was established which assumed the control of public schools. This bureau remained under the

²²Concepcion Aguila, Educational Legislation, (Manila: Aguila Publications, 1956), p.p. 123-124.

Department of Education which was headed by a member of the Philippine Commission, who was designated as the Secretary of Public Instruction, an appointee of the President of the United States.

During this period primary schools were established, the Philippine Normal School was organized to meet the needs and demands for teachers, the primary school was expanded to intermediate, and the Manila Trade School was founded.

The first schools that were opened were the primary grades. This primary instruction was intended to prepare the great mass of the population for effective citizenship and throughout the islands. The curriculum of the primary schools had gone through many revisions. There was a lot of experimenting at the beginning. In the first years of the American regime, the division superintendents were permitted to arrange the subjects for the primary grades, with the instruction that the study of the English language should be given priority. Other subjects taught were reading, writing, arithmetic, English grammar, geography, history, music, physical education, and industrial work.

The length of the primary course during this time was three years. In view of the short span of the primary course, only the essentials of the subjects mentioned above could be acquired by the pupils. In 1907 the primary course was lengthened to four years. The curriculum guides published by the Bureau of Education continued to stress the basic

subjects, especially English and Industrial Arts. Table I shows the curriculum adopted in 1907 for the primary schools.

As time went on and social conditions changed in the Philippines, it became increasingly apparent that educational changes at the other levels would have to be made. As soon as the need for higher instruction was felt in 1904, intermediate schools were organized. The intermediate course consisted of an additional three years above the primary level. Originally, the intermediate course was intended for students who could remain in school beyond the primary course, and therefore, its content was merely an amplification of the subjects of study of the primary course. A change in the objectives and content of the intermediate course was effected in 1909. There were different courses offered; the general course was for those who wished to pursue higher academic goals, and the other courses were intended for preparing students who had a definite calling.

The Manila Trade School was established during this period. The Commission in its report for the year 1901 commented on the demand from the provinces for teachers capable of giving instruction in manual training and trades and remarked that trade schools "if established in sufficient numbers and properly organized and conducted, will do more than almost any other agency to . . . Filipino students in the possession of those qualities or powers which tend most

TABLE 1

EVOLUTION OF THE ELEMENTARY CURRICULUM OF THE PHILIPPINE
PRIMARY AND INTERMEDIATE SCHOOL 1904 - 1929

Upgraded Primary School 1904 (Period: 3 years)

Subject (all taught in Spanish except the English language)

English Language
Reading
Writing
Arithmetic
Geography
History
Physiology
Nature Study
Music
Drawing
Industrial Work
Physical Exercise

Graded Primary School 1907 (Period: 4 years)

<u>Subject</u>	<u>Grade</u>
Language (including conversation, reading, spelling, and writing)	I
Arithmetic	
Handiwork (such as stick-laying, paper folding, paper weaving, clay and sand work)	
Games	
Music	

<u>Subject</u>	<u>Grade</u>
English Language	II
Arithmetic	
Music	
Handiwork	
Drawing	
Writing	
Physical Exercise	

TABLE 1 (continued)

<u>Subject</u>	<u>Grade</u>
English Language	III
Arithmetic	
Geography	
Industrial Work (such as needlework, gardening, woodwork, pottery, weaving fans, baskets, hats, and mats, making chairs)	
Music	
Drawing	
Writing	
Physical Exercise	
<u>Subject</u>	<u>Grade</u>
English Language	IV
Nature Study	
Civics	
Arithmetic	
Geography	
Industrial Work (such as elementary agriculture, domestic science, masonry, weaving, dyeing, bleaching, rope-making)	
Writing	
Physiology	
Hygiene	
Additional subjects were added to the primary curriculum to all four grades in 1912.	
Phonics	
Good Manners and Right Conduct	
Sanitation (substituted for Physiology)	
<u>Intermediate School 1904 (Period: 3 years)</u>	
<u>Subject</u> (all subject are amplifications of the primary study)	<u>Grade</u>
English Grammar	IV
Composition	
Reading	
Arithmetic	

TABLE 1 (continued)

Intermediate School 1904 (continued)

<u>Subject</u>	<u>Grade</u>
Geography	IV
Plant Study	
Music	
Drawing	
Agriculture (for boys)	
Housekeeping and Plain Sewing (for girls)	

<u>Subject</u>	<u>Grade</u>
English Language	V
Grammar	
Arithmetic	
Philippine History	
Physical Geography	
Music	
Drawing	
Animal Life	
Agriculture (for boys)	
Housekeeping and Sewing (for girls)	

<u>Subject</u>	<u>Grade</u>
English Grammar	VI
Arithmetic	
Reading	
Music	
Drawing	
Physiology	
Hygiene	
Iron Works (for boys)	
Housekeeping and Nursing (for girls)	

Revised Curriculum for Intermediate School

A change in the objective and content of the intermediate course was effected in 1909. Six different courses were offered: general course, teaching course, farming course, trade course, housekeeping and household industries course, and business course. After completing the first four grades of the primary course, the student might take any one of these courses. The last four courses were to prepare

TABLE 1 (continued)

students for some definite calling. The general course was for those who wished to continue higher academic studies.

<u>Subject</u>	<u>General Course</u>	<u>Grade</u>
Grammar and Composition		V
Reading and Spelling		
Music		
Writing		
Drawing		
Industrial Work		
Grammar and Composition		VI
Reading and Spelling		
Geography		
Drawing		
Industrial Work		
Grammar and Composition		VII
Reading and Spelling		
History and Government		
Physiology		
Hygiene and Sanitation		
Drawing		
Industrial Work		
<u>Subject</u>	<u>Teaching Course</u>	<u>Grade</u>
Grammar and Composition		V
Reading and Spelling		
Arithmetic		
Music		
Writing		
Drawing		
Industrial Work		
Grammar and Composition		VI
Reading and Spelling		
Geography		
Drawing		
Industrial Work		

TABLE 1 (continued)

Teaching Course (continued)

<u>Subject</u>	<u>Grade</u>
Grammar and Composition	VII
Reading and Spelling	
Arithmetic	
Physiology	
Hygiene and Sanitation	
History and Government	
School Methods and Management	
Practice Teaching	

Trade Course and Course in Farming have the same subjects taught except shopwork and estimating are taught in Trade Course and agriculture, farmwork, and carpentry are taught in Farm Course in all grades.

<u>Subject</u>	<u>Trade Course and Farm Course</u>	<u>Grade</u>
Grammar and Composition		V VI VII
Reading and Spelling		
Arithmetic		
Drawing		

<u>Subject</u>	<u>Course in Business</u>	<u>Grade</u>
Grammar and Composition		V
Reading and Spelling		
Arithmetic		
Geography		
Spelling and Dictation		
Penmanship and Plain Lettering		
Typewriting		
Grammar and Composition		VI
Reading and Spelling		
Arithmetic		
Geography		
Dictation		
Bookkeeping		
Typewriting		

TABLE 1 (continued)

Business Course (continued)

<u>Subject</u>	<u>Grade</u>
Grammar and Composition	VII
Reading and Spelling	
Arithmetic	
Geography	
Business Correspondence	
Bookkeeping	
Typewriting	

Source: Encarnacion Alzona, History of Education in the Philippines 1565-1930, (Manila: 1932), p.p. 198, 200, 202, 202-205.

directly to modernize them and raise their standard of civilization."²³

The period of the first expansion greatly stressed the training of the Filipinos in the art of self-government through mass public education and the introduction of industrial education. A 1903 report of the Secretary of Public Instruction emphasized "that next in importance after the creation of a supply of native teachers comes instruction in useful trades and the mechanical arts and sciences necessary for the industrial development of the country. It is confidently believed that besides giving the islands a supply of educated Filipino artisans and mechanics, it will compel a due regard and respect for the dignity of labor."²⁴

Education during the adjustment period from 1911 to 1918. The period between 1911 to 1918 was called the first adjustment period, and the emphasis was shifted to the improvement of industrial and vocational instructions. Perhaps the keynote of the public school administration in this period was the stress laid on industrial education. The chief problem of the adjustment period initially had been the standardization of the various lines of industrial work throughout the Philippines. Under the leadership of Director White,

²³Source: Report of the Philipinne Commission, 1903, Part I, p. 84.

²⁴Ibid., p. 93.

industrial instruction was emphasized and systematized. In 1912, 21,618 boys and 125,303 girls, representing ninety-one percent of the enrollment, were engaged in industrial work such as regular manual training and trade work--school gardening and farming, housekeeping, making hats, and basketry.

The articles made by the students of the public schools were remarkable both for their quality and diversity. In 1912 the Philippines exported 621,475 hats. In the next fiscal year, 1,025,596; the increase was due largely to school influence. Industrial schools in all parts of the islands introduced and developed the slipper-making industry, embroidery, preserving and conserving fruits and vegetables. As the industrial arts were further developed, substantial returns were realized.²⁵

The athletic program was introduced in the schools during this period. Athletic meets were encouraged and regional athletic associations were organized. A comprehensive movement was organized for placing athletics on a uniform basis in all sections by means of the Manila Interscholastic Athletic Association and Interprovincial Associations for conducting meets at various places in the Philippines. Before the introduction of the athletic program, physical

²⁵Source: Report of the Philippine Commission, (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1912), p. 164.

activity was considered not only unpleasant but very undignified. All that has been changed. A very large proportion of public school pupils participated under careful instruction in some form of organized athletics and the beneficial effects, both mental and physical, are already evident. It may be that when the final account is made up, it will be found that baseball has had a more beneficial effect upon the new generation than even the more orthodox subjects of the school course.²⁶

It had been noted that the only textbooks available to use in the schools at the beginning of the American regime were those prepared for American children. These were soon found to be unsuited to the needs of the Filipino children. Intensive efforts were made in the preparation of more suitable textbooks. New textbooks were prepared from local materials by teachers and others familiar with conditions and according to the report of Secretary Cameron Forbes, "nearly all of the texts now used in the primary and intermediate grades have been prepared and adapted to the needs of the Filipinos. In the secondary grades, American textbooks were generally used."²⁷

The second expansion period from 1919-1922. The passage of the Thirty-Million-Peso Act in 1918 was a signal for

²⁶Worcester, p. 413.

²⁷Source: Twenty-Eight Annual Report of the Director of Education, (Manila: Bureau of Printing, 1929), p. 12.

the second expansion program of the public school system. With this fund, 136 new primary schools were opened and 2,963 new primary teachers were employed. In 1920 there was a great increase in the number of school buildings, and 2,671,768 more children were admitted to the primary schools.²⁸

During the second expansion period, the adaptation of American textbooks to fit Philippine conditions were encouraged. Textbooks written by American and Filipino authors were adopted for use in the schools. In 1921, Act No. 2957 was passed by the legislature creating the Board of Textbooks. This board took charge of the selection and adoption of textbooks to be used in the public schools.

In the first expansion period, three private schools were founded because the public schools could not accommodate all the pupils who sought enrollment. Private education made considerable progress in the second period of expansion. Because of the growth of the number of private schools, the need for supervision and regulation was more pronounced than before. The Philippine legislature passed Act No. 2708 to remedy the situation.²⁹ This law made government inspection and supervision of private schools obligatory. The Secretary

²⁸Florencio P. Frenoza and Canuto P. Casim, Philippine Educational System, (Manila: Abiva Publishing House, Inc., Revised Edition, 1964), p. 19.

²⁹*Ibid.*, p. 21.

of Education was authorized to revoke the recognition granted to the private schools which failed to keep up the standards of instruction and equipment required by the government.

Assessment of the Educational System - 1923 to 1936.

This period is described by Frenoza and Casim as one of assessment and evaluation. Since the beginning of the Philippine public school system (almost twenty-five years) no evaluation of the system had been done. In 1925, the first comprehensive educational survey was authorized by the Philippine legislature in Acts No. 3162 and No. 3196. The Board of Educational Survey created for this purpose was chaired by Dr. Paul Monroe of Columbia University, a famed American educator. He was the director of the International Institute and professor of education at the Teachers College, Columbia University. The members and their respective fields were: Dr. Stephen Duggan, higher education; Dr. Jesse F. Williams, physical and health education; Dr. Lester Wilson, teacher-training; Dr. Frederick Bonser, intermediate schools, industrial work, trade schools, and household arts education; Miss Mary E. Pennell, primary schools and administration. Dr. Harold Rugg and Dr. George S. Counts conducted testing and measurement.

The Monroe Survey Commission gathered data through observation, interviews, and testing.³⁰ The tests were

³⁰Worcester, p. 415.

conducted in twenty-four provinces of the country, and 32,000 students and more than 1,000 teachers were tested.

A summary of the findings and recommendations of the Monroe Survey follows:

1. The language instruction. The Monroe Survey Commission found out that the use of the English language as the medium of instruction was the best that could be had considering all the existing factors. However, the use of English created considerable handicaps to the instructional program. The Commission recommended that the local dialect be employed in teaching character education in the lower grades.
2. Elementary education. The presence of many over-age pupils was noted by the Commission. The elementary curriculum was found to be inadequate to meet the learners' needs. It was too heavy with requirements. The textbooks used were not adapted to the interests and capacities of the pupils and as a result, much verbalistic learning was going on. School subjects were not being studied in isolation and the time allotted to some of them was out of proportion to their importance. The Commission recommended that the materials in all the textbooks should be adapted to Philippine life and to the interests of the pupils. Certain changes in the curriculum and in time allotment were also recommended.
3. Secondary education. The Commission noted that the large majority of the secondary school population was taking the academic curriculum which did not prepare them for life after graduation. This condition was creating social and economic problems. It recommended that the secondary schools should provide training in agriculture, commerce, and industry. The rural (agricultural) high school should be made the standard high school in every province instead of the academic high school.
4. Teacher education and training. It was noted by the Commission that about 95% of the teachers were not professionally trained. This impaired the efficiency of instruction. It was suggested by the Commission that only professionally trained teachers should be employed, and that at least four years of secondary normal school work should be required of prospective teachers.

5. Higher education. The Monroe Survey Commission was satisfied with the high standards of instruction given in the University of Philippines. It recommended that these standards should be maintained by using some methods of selective admission and by freeing the university from political interference. The Commission also recommended that the efforts of higher education should be concentrated in Manila.³¹

After the Monroe Survey Report had been submitted, the Philippine Legislature created a joint committee to study the findings and requested the Secretary of the Department of Public Instruction to submit to the legislature his views on the recommendations contained in the report. Eugene Gilmore, secretary of the Department of Public Instruction, responded to the request of the Legislature in the following reply:

Some of the defects noted by the Survey Board were precisely the problems which the Board of Education has been trying to solve for many years. The adaptation of the curriculum, for instance, is a process that requires time and study; and the present curriculum has been the result of the process of adaptation. There is a need for more men in the Bureau of Education in order that the recommendations of the Survey Commission might be carried out.³²

The greatest effort during this period of assessment was directed to the improvement of the quality of the teaching force and the instructional method used. In line

³¹In 1925 an extensive survey of the educational system of the Philippine Islands was made by a survey commission of American pedagogical experts. The investigation was provided by the Philippine Legislature upon the suggestion of the Secretary of Public Instruction and the Director of Education. \$50,000 was appropriated to pay for it. The report was taken from the Survey of the Educational System of the Philippines (Manila: 1925). See also Appendix.

³²Secretary of Public Instruction Eugene Gilmore's Reply (Manila: 1925), a pamphlet of 31 pages.

with the recommendation of the Monroe Educational Survey Commission, methods and teaching techniques and supervision were improved. Teacher training was intensified, the curriculum was revised, and a division in the General Office was created for the continuous study and development of the curriculum.

The Commonwealth Period from 1935 to 1946

The educational policy which the American occupation had adopted initially expanded into the Commonwealth period, from 1935 to 1946, when the Philippines received its independence from the United States. The establishment of the Commonwealth Government brought about the reorientation of educational plans and policies which was necessary in order to carry out the educational mandates of the Constitution. The curricula of the elementary and secondary schools were revised so that the objectives of education embodied in the Constitution might be carried out. Character education and citizenship training was emphasized in the schools. Vocational subjects were introduced in the general secondary schools.

Under the Commonwealth, education was encouraged. According to the Constitution, the government shall provide at least free public elementary education and all schools shall aim to develop moral character, personal discipline,

and vocational efficiency. Considerable expansion of the educational system was achieved during the Commonwealth regime. In 1935-1936, there were 7,830 public schools with a total enrollment of 1,236,791 and 27,918 teachers. In 1940-1941, five years later, there were 12,057 public schools with a total enrollment of 2,027,957 and 43,754 teachers.³³ The construction and revision of the different curricula offered in the Philippine public schools were more administrative in function rather than legislative. The law sometimes prescribed revision of the curriculum. A good example of such a legislative mandate is found in Sections 2 and 3 of the Commonwealth Act No. 586, otherwise known as the Educational Act of 1940, which says:³⁴

Section 2. In order to meet the increasing for public elementary educational instruction and at the same time comply with constitutional mandate on public education, a complete revision of the public elementary school system is imperative. Such a revision shall have the following objectives: (a) to simplify, shorten, and render more practical and economical both the primary and intermediate courses of instruction so as to place the same within the reach of the largest possible number of school children; (b) to afford every child of school age adequate facilities to commence and to complete at least the primary course of instruction; (c) to give every child completing the primary course an adequate working knowledge of reading, writing, and fundamentals of arithmetic, geography, Philippine history and government, character and civic training; and (d) to insure

³³Gregorio F. Zaide, The Philippine History: Achievements of the Commonwealth, (Manila: The Modern Book Company, 1965, p. 301.

³⁴Ibid., p. 552.

that all the children attending the elementary schools shall remain literate and become useful, upright, and patriotic citizens.

Section 3. No child shall be admitted into the public elementary schools except on condition that he shall remain in school until he shall have completed at least the primary course.

Exceptions - The section continues with the exceptions to such provision:

Compulsory attendance as herein required may be waived in any of the following cases: first, when the distance from home of the child to the nearest school exceeds three kilometers and the said school is not conveniently possible to the child, considering the means of transportation available; second, where such child is mentally defective or is physically unable to enter the said school; third, where on account of economic condition of his parents, the child cannot continue in school; and fourth, when the child transferred to a private school.³⁵

In an effort to solve the perennial school crisis which had plagued the country through the years of general public education, the National Assembly approved Commonwealth Act No. 580 in 1940, which instituted the double-single session plan and the emergency plan. It solved the problem of accommodating the growing school population at least in 1941.³⁶ The war, however, brought back the same problem because of the enforced educational blackout from 1942 to 1944. When the schools were re-opened in 1945, the problem had to be solved by extension classes.

³⁵ Ibid.

³⁶ Gregorio F. Zaide, The Philippine History: Achievements of the Commonwealth, (Manila: The Modern Book Company, 1965), p. 301.

America's contribution to Philippine education was an equal chance of the people for education. America knew that one of the surest ways to progress was to educate the people. She built thousands of public schools all over the country, not only in the town centers but also in the rural areas as well. She opened these schools to all people, rich and poor alike, to the old as well as to the young. Both boys and girls were admitted to these schools. All subjects were taught in English.

At the beginning, the teachers were American soldiers who were relieved later by American teachers recruited from the United States. They became the harbingers of American civilization and democracy in all parts of the Philippines. They contributed to the making of a new Filipino nation. They selected some Filipino pupils and taught them how to be teachers. These pupils studied in the morning and taught younger pupils in the afternoon. It did not take very long before there were many Filipino teachers in the public schools.

Each year more and more schools were established—private schools, high schools, colleges and universities. More and more students finished their courses and practiced their professions.

Each year, more and more books came from America and in 1922 textbooks were written by American and Filipino authors residing in the Philippines. These textbooks were

adopted for the use in schools. Zaide notes in his book, Philippine History and Government, Manila, 1950, p. 87, "to widen our changes for education, libraries and museums were established. The libraries allowed our people to read more and more books that interested them. The museums enables them to see objects of the past or interesting things in our country they could not see around them. This was learning by watching or seeing."

Conclusion

Condrado Benitez, author of the History of the Philippines, Manila, 1954, pointed out the difference between America's educational policy and Spain's:

Just as Spain was able to gain goodwill of the early Filipinos by means of religion and the ideals of Christianity as practiced by the early self-sacrificing missionaries, so America disarmed Filipino hostility and opposition by introducing an educational system and the ideals of democracy, the attainment of which had been the Filipinos' cherished ambition since pre-American days. The schoolhouse, instead of the church building, and the teacher, instead of the missionary, were to be America's official instruments for the establishments of peace and the spread of American culture and democracy.³⁷

From the inception of the school system in 1901 to the establishment of the Republic in July, 1946, the fundamental objectives of the Philippine education have been primarily the development of English as a common language

³⁷ Benitez, p. 337.

and the training of the people in the art of self-government as a preparation for eventual independent statehood.

The Americans sought to quench the popular thirst for education and encouraged the Filipinos to seek higher learning, unlike the Spanish authorities who maintained a restrictive policy towards education. The curricula tended to be an exact copy of the American system of education. The American policy of mass education achieved its goal of democratization, which enabled the creation of a literate and relatively well-informed citizenry and permitted the progressive entry of great numbers of the lower classes into the political process as participants.

It may be noted under the above provisions of the Constitution and Executive Orders, that besides maintaining a complete and adequate system of public education, certain objectives are mandatory, and certain subjects are commanded to be taught, such as the National Language (Tagalog) and the English language.

Executive Order No. 263,³⁸ dated 1940 required the National Language (Tagalog) to be taught in all public and private schools. In accordance with such order, the Secretary of Public Instruction issued Department Order No. 1, on April 8, 1940 and was approved by President Quezon on April 12, 1940, requiring the National Language to be taught

³⁸Frenoza and Casim, p. 41.

in all secondary and normal schools. In compliance with the Executive Order No. 263, the National Language was to be taught beginning June 19, 1940, in the fourth year of all public and private high schools as well as in the senior year of all public normal schools and private teacher - training institutions. The plan was to extend the teaching of the National Language downward year by year until all the years of the secondary schools curriculum shall have included one period of National Language.

The first Ordinance appended to the Constitution provides that English should be the primary medium of instruction in the public schools until the grant of final independence. Section I of the same read: "The Government of the Commonwealth of the Philippines shall establish and maintain an adequate system of public schools primarily conducted in the English Language."³⁹

³⁹Ibid., p. 44.

CHAPTER IV

THE PHILIPPINE SECONDARY SCHOOL SYSTEM

FIRST PERIOD 1900 to 1946

Chapter IV presents the development of the secondary schools in the Philippines under the American rule. The American influence in the shaping of the Philippine educational system is reflected in the (1) aims of secondary schools, (2) enrollment, (3) curriculum organization, (4) method of instruction, (5) evaluation, (6) instructional materials and textbooks, (7) teacher training, (8) administration and supervision, (9) funding of schools. In this chapter American influence on the shaping of the secondary schools of the Philippines is discussed.

As noted in Chapter III, Philippine education developed its primary roots in the traditions of cultural studies. During the Spanish occupation and the first three decades of the American regime, the Philippine schools emphasized academic subjects. The Philippine secondary schools during the Spanish rule were concerned with cultural preparation of youth. The first secondary schools established in 1585 had a curriculum devoted mainly to the study of rhetoric, Latin, and philosophy.

The educational reforms which were instituted during the second half of the nineteenth century recognized the need for a more complete program of secondary education without altering the basic philosophy of Spanish education which was narrow and limited in scope.

The coming of the Americans ushered in new concepts of government and of education. From the beginning, the American authorities announced their policy of preparing the people for self-government. Hence, it became imperative to establish a comprehensive system of public education designed to prepare the Filipinos for eventual political independence.

After the establishment of the Philippine public school system by Act No. 74, the organization of the different levels of education was effected gradually. On March 7, 1902, Act No. 372 reorganized the provincial governments and authorized the provincial boards to establish free secondary education.¹

Secondary education 1900 to 1946

The main institution of the secondary education in the Philippines is the four-year high school which stands between the six-year elementary school and the college. The student body is a group of adolescents with ages ranging from 13 to 17.

¹Report of the Magsaysay Committee on General Education, Toward General Education in the Philippines, (Manila: 1960), p. 147.

There are three types of four-year secondary schools:

(1) the general high school (academic), (2) the vocational high school (trade, industrial, agricultural, commercial schools), and (3) private schools.

The organization of public secondary schools was a part of the plan of the new government to endow the Philippines with a complete system of public schools from the lowest to the highest grades. The need for schools of this type was keenly felt by those who had finished the elementary course in government schools and wished to continue their studies. The secondary schools, which were in existence at the time the United States took over the Philippines from Spain in 1898, were private and nearly all under the control of the church.

The main feature of secondary education in America at this time was the emphasis in both purpose and curriculum of the nineteenth century secondary education on the college preparation. In the early American period of Philippine educational history, the stress was on academic subjects. In fact, the prototype of the old academic curriculum was called the "high school of literature, history, and sciences."² Secondary education aimed primarily at providing liberal education and preparing the students for college admission. Patterned

²B. V. Aldana, "The Philippine Public School Curricula," Philippine Teachers Digest, (Manila: 1935), p.p. 97-123.

after the American high schools, the changing curricula of the Philippine high schools, from 1904 to the middle of the thirties, were invariably characterized by the prescription of such subjects as mathematics--algebra, plane geometry, and advanced algebra; English--composition and literature, both English and American; history--general, U.S., and colonial history, and economics; science--zoology, geology, physics, biology, botany, and physical geography; and languages--Spanish and Latin.

Curriculum

The course of study in the secondary schools has undergone frequent revisions since 1902 in an attempt to make it more suitable to the needs of the Filipino students. From the beginning, the length of the academic secondary course was four years. Completion of the intermediate course was required for entrance.

Previous to 1904, no uniform secondary curriculum was prescribed for the provincial high schools since their administration was left largely in the hands of division superintendents. These schools provided training to those who wished to study in the colleges or universities, to those who would become teachers, to those who would become clerks, and for the trades and farming. The academic curriculum was the basic curriculum and at that time might be called general education. The instruction along normal, commercial, and

business lines was given as special courses whenever adequate facilities for such instruction was available. Typical of such early secondary school curriculum was the one used in the city of Manila. The entire curriculum was purely academic, offering such courses as history, physical geography, Latin, American literature, physics, Latin and English literature, geometry, and chemistry. Besides the academic curriculum, there were the normal, commercial, and business curriculum.

The following illustrations show the development of the secondary public schools curricula from 1904 to 1941:

Secondary Academic Curriculum³

<u>First Year</u>	<u>Second Year</u>
English Literature	English Literature
Philippine History	History: Ancient and Medieval
Science (Botany)	Science (Animal Life)
Mathematics (Elements of Algebra)	Mathematics (Plane Geometry)
Language (Latin)	Language (Latin)
<u>Third Year</u>	<u>Fourth Year</u>
English Literature	English Literature
History: Modern and Colonial	U.S. History and Government
Science (Physiography, Meteorology, Paleontology, and Anthropology)	Physics
Language (Spanish and French)	Language (Spanish or French)

The secondary curricula underwent the first major revision in 1906. The academic curriculum as prescribed that last year was as follows:

³Frenoza and Casim, p. 180.

Secondary Academic Curriculum⁴ 1906

First Year

Prose and Poetical
Selections and Ad-
vanced Grammar
Ancient History
Algebra
Botany
Spanish or Latin

Second Year

Prose and Poetical Selections
and Advanced Grammar
Medieval and Modern History
Algebra (first semester)
Plane Geometry (second semes-
ter)
Zoology (first semester)
Agriculture (second semester)
Spanish or Latin

Third Year

Rhetoric and Drama;
the Novel
American History
Physical Geography and
Geology
Modern Language or
Latin

Fourth Year

The Oration and Argumentative
Literature; Essay and Di-
dactic Literature
Colonial History and Adminis-
tration
Elements of Economics; Social
and Economic Conditions
Physics

In the earlier years of the secondary education, a three-year agricultural curriculum was prescribed for the public secondary schools. However, the curricula of the vocational schools were not as definitely outlined as the curriculum of the general secondary schools because of their experimental nature. In 1906, the following secondary agricultural curriculum was made to give an insight into the problems of tropical agriculture:

⁴Ibid., p. 181.

Secondary Agricultural Curriculum⁵ 1906

The curriculum for the first year and second year students is similar to that of the first year and second year students enrolled in the Academic School. The courses for the third year and fourth year follow:

Third Year

Rhetoric, Drama, and
the Novel
Trigonometry and Surveying
Physical Geography and
Agriculture

Fourth Year

Elements of Economics
Colonial History and Adminis-
tration
Physics
Agriculture

During the adjustment period from 1911 to 1918, emphasis in education shifted to improving industrial and vocational instruction. The report of W. Cameron Forbes, Acting Secretary of Public Instruction, to the Philippine Commission stated that "the keynote of the present administration of the public schools is stressed on industrial instruction, and the need to standardize the various lines of industrial work throughout the archipelago."⁶ The change in the secondary vocational curricula did not take place until later; however, further revisions of the secondary academic curriculum of 1911, 1912, and 1913 were implemented. The prescribed curriculum for these school years follows:

⁵Ibid., p. 182.

⁶Report of the Philippine Commission to the Secretary of War, 1911 (Part I), (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1912), p. 164.

Revised Secondary Academic Curriculum⁷
1911 to 1913

First Year

Literature, Composition,
and Rhetoric
History: Ancient and
Medieval
Algebra
Botany
Latin and Spanish

Second Year

Literature, Composition, and
Rhetoric
History: Modern with supple-
mentary reference
Algebra (first semester
Plane Geometry (second semester)
Zoology (first semester)
Agriculture (second semester)
Latin or Spanish

Third Year

Literature, Composition,
and Rhetoric
United States History
Plane Geometry (first
semester)
Geology (second semester)
Physical Geography
(first semester)
Latin or Spanish

Fourth Year

Literature, Composition, and
Rhetoric
Colonial Government and
Administration
Economics
Physics
Latin or Spanish

Additional revision of the curriculum during these years was the added course in physical education from the first year to the fourth. Worcester wrote in 1914: "The results are justifying the hope of the original promoters of the athletic program. The physical development of the participants has been wonderful. The spirit of fair play and sportsmanship, hitherto lacking, has sprung into being in every section of the islands and in schools."⁸

⁷Frenoza and Casim, p.p. 183-184.

⁸Worcester, The Philippines Past and Present, (Chicago: MacMillan Company, 1914), p. 408.

In 1914, the academic curriculum was again revised.
This revision of the curriculum lasted until 1918.

Secondary Academic Curriculum⁹
1914-1918

First Year

Literature
Composition
Algebra
General History
Physical Education

Second Year

English
Plane Geometry
Physical Geography (first semester)
U.S. Government (second semester)
Physical Education

Third Year

English
Review Arithmetic (second semester)
Biology (double period)
Colonial History (first semester)
Commercial Geography (second semester)
Physical Education

Fourth Year

Literature
Advanced Algebra (optional) (first semester)
Solid Geometry (second semester)
Physics (double period)
Composition and Rhetoric (first semester)
Business English (second semester)
Economic Conditions of the Philippines
Physical Education

The vocational function of the academic curriculum was brought about by the social conditions at the time. Social and economic opportunities became abundant with the presence of America. Business firms were established and more and more government offices were organized. In the new regime, ability to speak and write English became valuable assets. The Filipinos went to school to learn English and to meet

⁹Alzona, p. 230.

the demands of the new regime. The services of those who could transact business in English, correspond in English, and teach English were in great demand. "Knowledge of the English language was open sesame to the door of opportunity."¹⁰

According to the report of the Committee toward general education in the Philippines, the pressing demand for those who knew how to speak English, could not, however, continue forever. With both the increasing enrollment of students in the public schools and with increase of the number of high school and college graduates, the abundance of jobs diminished gradually and job opportunities also decreased. The academic curriculum caused an over-supply of high school graduates.¹¹

The secondary vocational curricula were reintroduced in the public schools in 1918. These revisions of the curricula lasted until 1941. The following were offered: agriculture, commerce, home economics, and trade.

¹⁰Report of the Magsaysay Committee on the General Education of the Philippines, p. 148.

¹¹Ibid., p. 149.

Secondary Agricultural Curriculum¹² 1918

First Year

English
Farm Arithmetic
Horticulture
Physical Education
Field Work

Second Year

English
Civic Biology
Animal Husbandry
Physical Education
Field Work

Third Year

English
Farm Entomology
Farm Crops
Physical Education

Fourth Year

English
Farm Physics
Extension Work
Physical Education

In 1924, the curriculum in agriculture was revised to include literature and composition, current events, major farm crops of the Philippines, plant diseases and pests, and farm engineering and mechanics.

The school of commerce was originally open to intermediate graduates, but beginning in 1919, the entrance requirement was raised. By 1917, only those who had finished the first year of the secondary course could be admitted. The aim of the school was to train bookkeepers, typists, translators, stenographers, cashiers, commerce teachers, and salesmen. In 1918 the courses of study offered in this school were:

¹²Frenoza and Casim, p.p. 188-192.

Secondary Curriculum in Commerce¹³ 1918

First Year

Literature and Current
Events
Bookkeeping
Commercial Arithmetic
Composition
Algebra
Music

Second Year

Literature and Current
Events
Bookkeeping
Commercial Arithmetic
Typewriting
Geometry
Music

Third Year

Business English and
Reading on Business
Conditions
General History and
Current Events
Commercial Geography and
Commercial Arithmetic
Stenography or Bookkeeping
Music

Fourth Year

Business English and Reading
on Business Conditions
Economic Conditions in the
Philippines
Commercial Law and Business
Methods
Music
Stenography or Bookkeeping

As stated in Chapter III, training in the household arts in the Philippine public schools began in the primary school. Instruction in cooking, housekeeping, home nursing, and sewing was given in the intermediate grades. The emphasis on the practical side of the home economics course has been much commended.¹⁴ This course led to the secondary home economics course.

¹³Ibid., p. 193.

¹⁴Dr. Charles A. Prosser, in his report on vocational education in 1930.

Secondary Home Economics Curriculum¹⁵
1918

First Year

Literature and Current
Events
Composition
Housekeeping, Cooking,
and Plain Sewing
U.S. History
U.S. Government
Physical Education

Second Year

Literature and Current Events
Physical Geography
General History and Current
Events
Geometry
Food Chemistry, Cooking,
and Embroidery
Physical Education

Third Year

Literature and Composition
Biology
General History and
Current Events
Child Care
The Home
Physical Education

Fourth Year

Literature and Composition
Economics
Philippine History and
Current Events
Personal Home and Community
Hygiene
Physical Education

The organization of trade schools began in 1901 in Manila. By 1907 other trade schools were established in the provinces. The course was started at the elementary level. Since 1924 the elementary trade schools have been gradually converted into secondary trade schools. The aim was to raise the standard of the vocational schools and to attract mature students.

¹⁵Alzona, p. 254.

Secondary Trade School Curriculum¹⁶ 1924

First Year

English Composition
Literature and Current
Events
Elementary Algebra
Drawing
Shop Work (cabinet making,
iron working, mechanical
drawing)

Second Year

English
General History
Plane Geometry
Drawing
Shop Work (elementary wood-
working, building con-
struction)

Third Year

English Composition
Solid Geometry
General Science (first
semester)
Economics
Shop Work

Fourth Year

English
Physics
Industrial Mathematics
Drawing
Shop Work

To adjust the high school course to the changing needs of the society, the Bureau of Education experimented with a general curriculum in the Batangas and Capiz high schools in 1932. The experiment was based on the results of a study of the secondary curriculum conducted by a committee of experts of the Bureau in 1931. The committee found several defects in the academic curriculum. The report says that the curriculum aimed to prepare the students for college work, but very few of them went to college. There were no elective courses which the students could take to meet their varying needs and interests. Hence, the experimental general curriculum was tried in 1932 as a measure to remedy the defects of the academic high school.

¹⁶Frenoza and Casim, p. 194.

The Bureau of Public Schools explained the aims of the general curriculum thus:

The secondary general curriculum is based on the principle that a broad general education is necessary equipment for effective performance of citizenship activities. The general curriculum should enable the students to acquire knowledge and attitudes through classroom instruction; habits and skills through practical work on the farm, in the shop, in the store, or in the home; and an appreciation and understanding of his capabilities through a system of exploration and guidance. As now constructed, the program of vocational offerings of the general curriculum is designed to give the students the proper type of work experience leading to the development of desirable skills and wholesome attitudes toward work in general.¹⁷

The curriculum offers both academic and vocational courses with some optional subjects. The secondary curriculum which supplanted the academic curriculum in the public schools follows:

Type A General Secondary Curriculum
1935

(It became the curriculum for all the non-vocational public secondary schools in 1941)¹⁸

First Year

Literature
Composition
World History
Current Events
General Mathematics
Physical Education and
Pre-military Training

Second Year

Literature and Composition
General Science
United States History
Current Events (first semester)
Art Appreciation (second semester)
Physical Education and Pre-
military Training
Vocational Survey and Home
Economics

¹⁷Magsaysay Report, p.p. 148-149. See also Bureau of Public Schools, Memorandum No. 31, (Manila: 1948).

¹⁸Frenoza and Casim, p.p. 192-194. See also Alzona, p. 231.

Third Year

Literature and Composition
 Biology
 Advanced Arithmetic
 (first semester)
 Oriental History
 (second semester)
 Vocational and Home
 Economics
 Physical Education and
 Pre-military Training

Fourth Year

Literature and Composition
 Economics
 Philippine History and
 Government
 Current Events
 Vocational and Home
 Economics
 Physical Education and
 Pre-military training

Since its introduction, the general curriculum has been widely accepted by the people. Different provinces such as Quezon, Tarlac, Isabela, and Cagayan adopted it after Batangas and Capiz. The Conference on Secondary Education in 1939 and the Thirty-Sixth Annual Convention of Division Superintendents in 1940 endorsed it. After the war, the general curriculum was adopted as the standard curriculum for all public high schools.¹⁹

Method of teaching

The memorizing method of instruction, which prevailed in the secondary schools during the Spanish era, has been abandoned. It has been replaced by the latest pedagogical methods of instruction. Teachers were required to prepare lesson plans and to ask pupils thought-provoking questions. The project method has also found its way into the secondary

¹⁹Bureau of Public Schools, Memorandum No. 31, 1948, "Pointers in the Organization and Administration of the Secondary General Curriculum."

school and has helped to vitalize the subjects of study. To improve classroom instruction, the size of the class has been limited. The median number of students in classes in secondary schools was 42.²⁰

In connection with the methods of teaching, the problem and the project have been stressed. Constant check-up on the students' use of English; silent-reading methods and devices; motivation; active student participation in all recitations; and good study questions organized about some central idea were emphasized; and teaching new material was made a part of making the assignment.

Biological and physical laboratories were at this time found in the secondary schools and natural science was no longer taught solely from a textbook, but explained in modern school laboratories.²¹

The English language method of instruction consisted of varying degrees of emphasis in listening, talking, reading, and writing which are parts of the curriculum of modern schools. In the Philippines, the oral aspect has received and continue to receive great emphasis in the secondary school language program. In language instruction, the child is taught how to pronounce correctly, to express his thought

²⁰Alzona, p. 234.

²¹Antonio Isidro, Trends and Issues in the Philippine Education, (Quezon City: Alemar-Phoenix Publishing House, 1968), p. 120.

intelligibly, and to develop a pattern of speech that can be understood by other speakers of English. "A much modified oral English is fast becoming the lingua franca of the Filipinos. However, the same emphasis, if not greater, is given to the development of reading ability in English."²² The point that was stressed in the preceding statement was that the schools should give greater attention to the students' ability to read with speed and comprehension.

Methods of instruction differed greatly in various parts of the archipelago. Pupils who were from 12 to 20 years old have enrolled in the primary school, and had several years of previous training in the public schools or in the private schools. Obviously, these children progressed much more rapidly than the uninstructed children from the rural areas. In view of the condition of the provincial population with respect to education, Bernard Moses, Secretary of Instruction in 1903, offered these observations:

It was determined that the secondary schools in the provinces should cover the widest range of subjects that might be found necessary to teach. It was recognized that these schools would furnish the highest grade of instruction that would be demanded by any considerable number of residents of the provinces; in the course of time they become the colleges for the people. It was, therefore, provided by law that the secondary instruction given in the provincial schools include, in addition to academic and commercial subjects, manual training, instruction in agriculture, and normal school instruction.

²²Ibid., p.p. 115-116.

By authorizing the broadest possible curriculum and by bringing in all of the subjects under a single organization, it is expected that those who have charge of these schools will adopt the methods of teaching necessary to the conditions of the people. The wide variety in the soil, climate, and the character of the inhabitants requires different kinds of instruction for different parts of the islands.²³

Vocational training has been stressed in the Philippine schools since the beginning. It was one of the principal aims of the industrial courses that were offered in the elementary and the intermediate schools. The practical value of industrial instruction was realized when an exhibit was held in 1907, at which many of the industrial products of the schools were sold. Since 1925 the elementary trade schools have been gradually converted into secondary trade schools. The aim was to augment the standard of the vocational schools and to attract mature students.

One of the best equipped of the secondary trade schools in the Philippines is the Philippine School of Arts and Trades, located in Manila and supported by the insular government. Its capacity is 800, and the student body is composed of boys coming from all parts of the islands. Each student takes a shop course which requires three hours of shop work daily for four years and a full academic course of the same number of years. Perfect attendance in shopwork is required, absences

²³ Prescott F. Jernegan, ed., Census of the Philippine Islands, Under the Americans, (Washington: Vol. 3, 1903), p.p. 654-655.

being made up on Saturdays or during vacations. The following shop courses are offered in this school: woodworking, building construction; ironworking; drafting; and surveying.²⁴

Students in this school are selected with great care as to physical strength and mental ability, and are under the supervision of the best qualified and most experienced teachers available, especially in shopwork. Methods of instruction utilize the practical method of teaching, and visual aids (picture of industries).²⁵

The influence of these trade schools is far-reaching, creating as they do an appreciation of the dignity of labor and pride of workmanship, training mechanics to meet the demand for skilled workmen, and providing students with profitable means of self-support. Students also benefit from physical exercise.

As the Philippines is essentially an agricultural country, particular attention has been given to the development of agricultural schools. Practical farming, as taught in these schools, emphasizes both instructive and the productive phases. In 1923 to 1924, the public school system had 299 vocational schools which gave practical training in agriculture. Of the 299 schools of agriculture, the Secretary

²⁴Source: 25th Annual Report of the Director of Education, Vocational Secondary Schools, (Manila: Bureau of Printing, 1926), p.p. 38-39.

²⁵Ibid., p.p. 40-42.

of Public Instruction reported that 24 were boarding schools (called agricultural schools) with farms averaging 455 hectares in size; 13 were day schools (called farm schools) and 272 rural agricultural schools (called settlement schools).²⁶ Since the work of the agricultural schools is perhaps less well understood than that of the vocational schools, it may perhaps be necessary to distinguish between the various types of such schools and their methods of instruction.²⁷ The agricultural schools were mostly boarding schools and the aims were to prepare the students to become independent and progressive farmers and agricultural leaders. The training given in these schools was essentially a practical one in which the student is made familiar with actual farm conditions by personally taking part in all of the activities which might be found in a successful farming community. The school environment was made to resemble as nearly as possible the student's future working environment, and the tasks which he would perform in his occupational life.

The second type of agricultural school was the farm school which offered a special farming course for boys and the general intermediate course in home economics for girls.

²⁶Source: Twenty-Seventh Annual Report of the Director of Education, Agricultural and Farm Schools, (Manila: Bureau of Printing, 1927), p.p. 53-54.

²⁷Ibid., p. 55.

Most of these schools were intermediate, although some offered secondary courses. The rural schools were located in isolated areas. Their aim was to show the people the advantages of a settled life and of modern farming methods.

The government also maintained a school of commerce in the city of Manila. From 1904 to 1908 it was known as the Manila Business School. In 1908 it was reorganized and its name changed to the Philippine School of Commerce.²⁸ Originally, it was open to intermediate graduates, but it raised the entrance requirements in 1909. Out of a total enrollment of 392 in 1913, there were 31 high school graduates and 327 possessing certain secondary credits. The aim of the school was to train bookkeepers, typists, translators, stenographers, and salesmen. By 1917, only those who had finished the first year of the secondary course could be admitted. A one year course in stenography was also offered for high school graduates, and this was a means of training a sufficient number of pupils. This consisted of an intensive course in business English, copying from rough draft, business conditions, spelling and typing.

The courses of study were revised in 1923 and a four-year commercial course was organized, and admission was based on the results of intelligence tests.²⁹

²⁸Ibid., p.p. 58-59.

²⁹Alzona, p. 258.

Physical education was a required subject for all able-bodied pupils enrolled in the Philippine public schools--secondary as well as elementary. It has helped to promote the health, the strength, the physique, and the efficiency of Filipino children.³⁰ Such physical activities as marching, calisthenics, dancing, impromptu games, and group athletics were popular and are still to this day, with Filipino children. Calisthenics and group games furnish exercise for the great majority of the pupils.

The attention that was given to group athletics in the schools during American rule served to furnish occasion for provincial and interprovincial high school contests, which through a natural process of elimination, provided the best of players for the annual insular interscholastic championship games held in Manila.

In 1917, commenting on the importance of the physical education program through athletics, the Director of Education had this to say:

Athletics serve a very useful purpose in stimulating a general interest among athletes, and perhaps would appeal to those who by nature are fitted to excel in athletic activities.³¹

³⁰Twenty-fourth Annual Report of the Director of Education, Physical Education, (Manila: Bureau of Printing, 1925), p.p. 50-51.

³¹1917 Annual Report of the Director of Education, p.p. 53-54.

The physical education program of the Bureau of Education has as its main purpose, the conservation and development of human resources of the Philippines.³² Games and other athletics have not only given boys and girls better physiques, but they have also provided wholesome recreation for feast days when games taught in schools often supplant more questionable forms of amusement. Physical education in the public schools is not only a means of greater national strength, but it fosters economic, mental, and moral progress.

Of the graduates of secondary schools in 1925-1926, a small number have highly specialized vocational training, but the majority have followed the literary course and have undoubtedly done this, according to Dean Worcester, former member of the Philippine Commission, with the idea of entering political life.

Evaluation of the educational system

Prior to 1925, there was no technical survey done to evaluate the Philippine educational system. In 1925, the first comprehensive educational survey was provided for by the Philippine Legislature at the suggestion of the Secretary of Public Instruction and the Director of Education. The Board of Educational Survey created for this purpose was headed by Dr. Paul Monroe. The Monroe Survey Commission

³²Twenty-fourth Annual Report of the Director of Education, p. 52.

gathered data through observation, interviews, and testing from twenty-four provinces of the country. It gave tests to some 32,000 pupils enrolled in different levels of instruction. In addition, it interviewed 1000 teachers and examined the records of school children and schools.

A summary of the findings and recommendations of the Monroe Survey Report follows: (high school instruction)

The present system of secondary schools, almost exclusively of an academic character and not well adapted to the Philippine society, is developing a far larger class of the purely academically trained than can be absorbed. If the present system of unlimited and free secondary education of a purely academic character continues, the results will be great social and political discontent as well as economic loss.

The survey also reported that although 31 of the 85 secondary schools were vocational schools of one type or another, more than 70 percent of the pupils registered were enrolled in academic courses. The Report recommended that, 'By charging tuition fees, by applying a rigorous form of selection for admission, and by a shift of emphasis in the central office, the number of boys and girls in attendance should be cut in half, and the number of schools should be greatly reduced, and this institution should become a highly specialized form of secondary school. On the other hand, the rural high school, that institution that articulates with the needs of the agricultural community should become the basic secondary institution of the archipelago.'³³

The Filipino attitude towards proposals to restrict opportunities for securing an academic education is accurately expressed in the Joint Legislative Committee Report of 1926:

³³Paul Monroe, Survey of the Educational System of the Philippine Islands, 1925, undertaken by a Commission headed by Dr. Paul Monroe. (Manila: Bureau of Printing, 1926), p. 35.

The academic high school has been the predominant type of secondary institutions in this country and will in all likelihood continue to be so . . . Any attempt, official or otherwise, forcibly to prevent the ambitious youth from securing a high school education will not succeed. Surely the Philippine people will not tolerate it. Efforts to deviate the popular type of secondary education to other types cannot succeed as long as the popular conception is that secondary education of the general type prepares adequately for higher education and for the higher professions and occupations.³⁴

A survey of vocational education in the Philippines was undertaken by Dr. Charles A. Prosser, a noted American specialist in vocational education, in 1930. He was director of the William Hood Dunwoody Industrial Institute. Dr. Prosser visited and observed the vocational schools in the Philippines and collected data about them and the different courses they offered. The highlights of Dr. Prosser's report on his findings about agricultural instruction were as follows:

Many of them lack proper living conditions for their students. None of them have adequate budget with which to render efficient service to the students they enroll. Many agricultural schools in the provinces find themselves denied almost annually modest and meager requests for needed funds. . . Students are given the assets with which to earn a livelihood in some agricultural employment. With all the defects of the provincial schools, they serve the real needs of the whole group than any other type of secondary schools in the islands.³⁵

³⁴Joint Legislative Committee Report on Education of the Philippines, p.p. 120-121.

³⁵Encarnacion Alzona, Survey of Agricultural Schools, (Manila: University of the Philippines Press, 1932), p.p. 252-253.

The Monroe Report in 1925, while praising the quality of the industrial arts program in the public schools, criticized it as being formal, mechanical, and ill-adjusted to community needs. In 1930, Dr. Charles E. Prosser pointed out that the training, although good in many ways, was a type for which there was no special demand. Not surprisingly, the graduates went into other fields.³⁶ A modern industrial society requires a great variety of well-trained technicians. In a developing country, not too many should be prepared in advance of industry, but the schools must be alert to new needs and prepared to serve them.³⁷

Legislative recognition of the desirability of further promoting agricultural and vocational education is evidenced by the passage in 1927 of an Act No. 3377, appropriating \$250,000 for the purpose. This measure provided for the cooperation of the Bureau of Education, provinces, municipalities, and the University of Philippines for the development of education in agriculture, commerce, and the trades and industries.³⁸

³⁶ Arthur Carlson, The Story of Philippine Education: Vocational Education, (Quezon City: New Day Publishers, 1978), p. 64. See also Hayden, The Philippines: A Study in the National Development, (New York: MacMillan Co., 1942), p.p. 375-376.

³⁷Ibid., p. 68. See also Worcester, p. 416.

³⁸Ibid., p. 71.

Table II indicates an increasing drawing power in the secondary vocational courses.

TABLE 2

COMPARATIVE ENROLLMENT IN SECONDARY GENERAL
AND VOCATIONAL COURSES

Courses	March Monthly Enrollment		
	1922-23	1925-26	1926-27
General	22,250	35,861	39,290
Agricultural	1,185	2,074	2,286
Trade	772	1,217	1,742
Home Economics	1,249	2,319	2,674
Commercial	280	502	553
Total	25,736	41,371	45,992

SOURCE: Report of the Governor General of the Philippines, 1929. Vocational Education, (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1931), p. 46. See also: Report of the Director of Education, 1927. In 1927 there were 113 different secondary schools which offered complete and incomplete courses. Forty-four of the secondary schools offered only the general course, the remaining schools offered a combination of general and vocational courses.

In 1935, just before the establishment of the Commonwealth regime, President Quezon appointed a survey committee to study and recommend changes in the educational system. The committee was composed of the following: Dr. Jorge

Bocobo, President of the University of the Philippines, headed the committee; Professor Ramona Tirona; Professor Ricardo Sian; Gabriel Manalo, assistant director of education; Dr. Maximo Kalaw, and Dean Francisco Benitez. The aim of the survey was to gear the schools to the emerging needs of the new government. A joint executive-legislative survey was later undertaken to determine the means of meeting the rising cost of education which was beginning to create annual school crises. A brief summary of some of the findings and recommendations of the Quezon Educational Survey Committee with reference to secondary education notes:

The secondary education should be reorganized. Three years of general high school with a curriculum consisting of 40% vocational and 60% academic subjects; two years of preparatory course which should be offered in colleges and universities.

Agricultural education should be improved. A People's Agricultural School should be established which would give short-unit courses, and more funds should be approved for agricultural extension work.⁴⁰

The Joint Educational Survey Committee was created in 1939 by the Executive Order No. 109. Its membership was made up jointly of representatives of the executive and legislative branches of the government. The members were Jorge Bocobo, Secretary of Public Instruction, chairman; Manual Roxas, Secretary of Finance; Celedonio Salvador, Director of Education; the Honorable Guillermo Z. Villanueva, Chairman

⁴⁰Frenoza and Casim, p. 500.

of the Committee on Appropriation; and Francisco Lavidés, Chairman of the Ways and Means Committee. The purpose of the committee was to survey thoroughly the system, the existing educational methods, curricula, and facilities, to formulate plans and measures to enable the government to maintain the school system in accordance with the mandate of the Constitution and to recommend changes and modifications in the present system of financing public education.

The findings of the Joint Educational Survey Committee were made on the basis of the Educational Act of 1940.⁴¹

Instructional materials: books and other printed materials

The education of the child, that is, his growth and development in the school, is not only affected by the curriculum and the quality of instruction but also by the environment that the school provides. In modern schools, the pupil is literally surrounded by a variety of aids to his learning. These consist of materials of all kinds--books, visual and aural aids, and many others. The facilities and equipment that the school provides determine the richness and variety of experiences that pupils acquire.⁴²

As a factor in curriculum development, the textbook is very important. It reflects and establishes standards because it indicates what the teacher is to teach and what the pupils are supposed to learn.⁴³

⁴¹Ibid., p. 502.

⁴²Florencio Frenoza, Philippine Educational System: The Instructional Materials, Books, and Other Materials, (Manila: Abiva Publishing House, Inc., 1964), p. 277.

⁴³Dr. Canuto P. Casim, Philippine Education: Textbooks and Instructional Materials, (Manila: Abiva Publishing House, Inc., 1964), p. 278.

After a critical survey of the Philippine educational system in 1925, the Monroe Commission offered several constructive recommendations for the improvement of secondary instruction. It found the textbooks and other instructional materials defective. The recommendations of the Monroe Commission on textbooks and instructional materials will be discussed later.

An examination of the textbooks and other instructional materials used during the early days of American occupation will be helpful to the reader in understanding the development of Philippine textbooks. The Americans thought at first that the majority of the Filipinos could speak the Spanish language. So textbooks in Spanish were ordered for the early schools. Later on when they found out that only a small portion of the people could speak the language, they decided to abandon the plan to use Spanish as the medium of instruction. English textbooks which were currently used in the schools in the United States were ordered for the Philippine schools. These were found to be too difficult and advanced for the Filipino children who were just beginning the study of the English language. In 1902, the General Superintendent of Schools recommended the preparation of textbooks possessing local color, local ideas, local descriptions, and local illustrations. Several American Book companies entered the field of adapting American textbooks to suit Philippine

conditions. This work was first directed to the textbooks used in the primary and intermediate grades.

In 1906, the first official adoption of textbooks by the Bureau of Education was implemented. A committee was appointed by the Director of Education to make a careful study of all the texts in the Philippine schools and of the completeness of their adaptation to the course of study prescribed for the public school at that time.⁴⁴ This committee was assisted by a group of classroom teachers, supervising teachers, and high school principals. The committee report suggested only a few textbooks to be officially adopted by the Bureau, and a great many unadopted textbooks had to be used.

Secondary textbooks during the early years were imported from the United States and were not specially prepared for the Filipino students. Gradually, Philippine material was added to texts in physical geography, biology, commercial geography, colonial history, economic history, and United States history.⁴⁵

The second Advisory Committee on School Texts was created in 1913 by the Director of Education, and the list of books they selected for adoption was published in 1916. In 1921, the Philippine Legislature passed Act No. 2957 creating the

⁴⁴Aldana, Chapter XIII, p. 189.

⁴⁵Alzona, p. 231.

Board of Textbooks which was empowered to select books to be used in the public schools.⁴⁶

The advisory textbook committee was composed of the chairman of the committee on public instruction of the Philippine Senate, the chairman of the committee on public instruction of the Philippine House of Representatives, the president of the University of the Philippines, the director of education, and a member appointed by the governor-general. In 1930, the membership of the advisory committee on textbooks was changed. The board was composed of technical men—five Americans and six Filipinos, who were designated by the director of education. This board chose the textbooks for the public schools every five years. The official texts used in the public academic secondary schools and vocational courses are listed in the appendix.⁴⁷

Dr. Antonio Isidro, formerly vice-president for academic affairs of the University of Philippines, stated the following about textbook adaptation:

In the development of suitable instructional materials for our schools, there are some basic considerations which are peculiar to our situation and which must be observed. The first consideration is the adaptation of the textbooks and instructional materials to the language development of the children. The second consideration is

⁴⁶Frenoza and Casim, p. 279.

⁴⁷Textbooks approved for use in secondary public schools, general and vocational course. Twenty-seventh Annual Report of the Director of Education, Calendar Year 1926, (Manila: Bureau of Printing, 1927), p.p. 116-119.

the adaptation of textbooks and instruction materials to the educational level of the students. This refers particularly to the textbooks and instructional materials used in the secondary schools and in college. We have adopted a system of education after the American school system, and we have taken for granted for more than half a century that we can graduate students after four years of college education as is practiced in the American school system.

We have overlooked the fact that while in American school system elementary and secondary education covers twelve years, in the Philippine school system we have ten years only. We have a college program based on a pre-college preparation which is two years shorter than that of American pattern, and using college textbooks written for American students written by college professors. The use of these textbooks and instructional materials which have been prepared in the context of foreign social, economic, political, and cultural environments is perhaps one of the greatest educational blunders.⁴⁸

Textbooks adopted for the use of Philippine public schools are selected carefully by the Board of Textbooks. Various educational factors enter into this consideration. In the early days of the Philippine educational system, under the American regime, the main criterion was adaptability of the text to the pupils. Books written with local ideas, local descriptions, local color, and local illustrations were primarily selected.

As the curriculum became nationalized in context, more books were written by Filipino authors in collaboration with American authors and were adopted for school use. It has been noted earlier that during the first years of

⁴⁸Isidro, p.p. 180-182.

the American rule, textbooks published by Americans for Americans in the United States became the tool of instruction in Philippine schools. Later, some American publishers, notably Ginn and Company, encouraged Filipino authors to write school textbooks. Camilo Osias wrote the first readers in English for Filipino elementary pupils in 1918.⁴⁹

Other printed instructional materials were newspapers and magazines, which were used for general reading and as reference materials. Pamphlets and bulletins were available from commercial and industrial firms and government offices. The school library as a whole was considered as an instructional aid. The secondary schools were provided with comfortable reading rooms, bookshelves, and trained librarians. The extension of library facilities fostered the reading habit among the school population. The number of libraries as well as their size had shown a gradual increase in the course of time. There were 118 secondary libraries in 1928 and 119 in 1929. The number of volumes in all the secondary school libraries in 1928 were 353,034; in 1929 it increased to 408,585.⁵⁰

⁴⁹Camilo Osias was a division superintendent of schools in 1917. He was an educator and author of the book Education in the Philippine Islands Under the Spanish Regime.

⁵⁰Twenty-seventh Annual Report of the Director of Education, p.p. 44-45. See also Alzona, p. 235.

Pacifico N. Aprieto, director of the Textbook Committee of the present administration, expresses his concerns about the textbooks for the masses:

Until recently, the lack of textbooks has seemed like an almost insurmountable national problem. The problem is not limited to quantity; most of the available books are substandard physically and pedagogically.⁵¹

Secretary Roces said:

Textbooks and reading materials must be modified in terms of situations and circumstances actually existing in the Philippines so that the students will fully know and understand all aspects of their country.⁵²

The solution to the problem of textbooks and other instructional materials was first initiated by the Monroe Commission after its critical survey of the Philippine education in 1925. It offered several constructive recommendations for the improvement of secondary instruction. It found the textbooks in Philippine history and government defective, and recommended the introduction of a course in Filipino community life and institutions in the first year, a course in oriental civilization in the second, a course in the history of western culture with emphasis on American civilization in the third, and a course in Philippine social problems and history in the fourth year.⁵³

⁵¹The 1978 Fookien Times Philippines Yearbook, "The Textbook of the Masses," (Manila: Fookien Times Yearbook Publishing Co., Inc., 1978), p. 308.

⁵²Frenoza and Casim, 286.

⁵³Monroe, p. 149.

The official texts used in the public academic secondary schools in 1930 are listed in Table 3.

Teacher training

The Normal School which was established in 1863 under the Spanish government became the training center for students aspiring to become teachers. At that time, the general qualifications of all students were enumerated in the educational decree of 1863: (1) they must be natives of Spanish dominions, (2) sixteen years of age, (3) in good health, and (4) in good standing in the town in which they lived, as certified by the parish priest. All students must take the entrance examinations in reading, writing and Spanish language, and Christian doctrine. The subjects of study were religion, morals, sacred history; theory and practice of writing; Spanish language--analysis, composition, and orthography; mathematics--arithmetic, algebra, and geometry; geography and history of Spain; elements of pedagogy; elements of practical agriculture; rules of courtesy; music; and practice teaching for six months. The duration of the course was three years. Successful students received a diploma to teach in the primary and elementary schools. Secondary schools were taught by the religious orders, as there were not schools established to train secular teachers to teach secondary education.

After the establishment of the Civil Government by the United States in the Philippines, the Bureau of Education was created. One of the most important functions of the Bureau of Education was the training of elementary school teachers. At the beginning of the American regime, American teachers were assigned to teach in the primary and the high schools because there were no Filipino teachers who could speak the English language. The need for teachers was immediate. As soon as qualified Filipinos learned a little English, they were appointed as teachers of primary grades.

At the beginning of the occupation period, a most efficient agency for the training of Filipino teachers had been the normal institutes for native teachers held every year for a month or more--usually in the long vacation between the middle of March and the middle of June. Every American teacher was required to teach in these institutes in alternate years. See Table 3 for the report of normal institutes held in various division during 1903.

Normal institutes for teachers helped to train teachers in modern and efficient methods in education and to increase their academic attainments. Formerly, all teachers were required to attend the division normal institutes. In recent years, in most of the division, only new teachers and those who had not done satisfactory work have been required to attend. Usually, the courses given in normal institutes were: phonics, types of industrial work, music, writing,

TABLE 3
REPORT OF NORMAL INSTITUTES
1903

Division	Location of Normal Institute	Inclusive Dates	Enrollment
Albay and Sorsogon	Sorsogon	May 24-June 29	60
	Guinobatan		
Ambos Camarines	Nueva Coceres	May 4-May 29	87
Batangas	Batangas	May 4-June 26	121
	Lipa		
Bohol	Tagbilaran	July 6-July 31	165
Bulacan	Bulacan	May 4-June 26	136
Cagayan and Isabela	Tuguegarao	June 1-July 24	254
	Calayan		
Capiz	Capiz	April 6-May 2	86
Cavite	Cavite	April 13-May 22	110
Cebu	Cebu	April 27-May 22	180
Ilocos Norte	Laoag	May 18-June 22	260
Ilocos Sur and Abra	Vigan	May 18-June 12	407
La Laguna	Santa Cruz	March 9-April 3	234
La Union	San Fernando	May 25-July 17	230
Masbate	Masbate	March 31-April 30	44
Nueva Ecija	Gapan	Jan. 12-Feb. 12	103
Nueva Viscaya	Bayombong	March 9-April 10	38
Negros Occidental	Bacolod	April 13-May 8	241
Negros Oriental	Dumaguete	April 27-May 22	145
Pampanga and Bataan	San Fernando	Feb. 16-March 27	308
Pangasinan	Lingayen	June 15-Aug. 21	392
	Dagupan		
Paragua	Cuyo	May 1-May 31	35
Rizal	Pasig	May 4-May 30	300
Romblon	Romblon	May 11-June 5	140
Surigao	Surigao	April 3-May 11	96
Tarlac	Tarlac	June 8-Aug. 17	315
	Lucena		131
Tayabas	Boac	March 31-April 24	71
	Atimonan		79
TOTAL:			5,596

SOURCE: Census of the Philippine Islands, 1903, Vol. 3, p. 652.

drawing, practical English, and methods in fundamental subjects. There were no credits toward graduation from elementary or secondary courses for work done in division normal institutes.⁵⁴ Prescott F. Jernegan of the Manila Normal School wrote Education Under the Americans: Early Occupation Period in which he describes the training of teachers in the institutes. The teachers, almost without exception and often at a great sacrifice, attended these institutes and came from their homes to the provincial capital where the institutes are held. Besides the teachers, many candidates for teachers' positions studied in these institutes. The course of study usually embraced the common branches with additional instruction in school methods of teaching, English, arithmetic, and writing.

Teachers in the primary schools continued to be trained at the normal institutes and later received training at the Insular Normal School in Manila which was opened on June 15, 1903. Principal G. W. Beattie has observed:

The faculty consists of 18 teachers and at the opening of school on June 1903 term, 657 students have matriculated and several hundred more applicants for admission have been denied.

⁵⁴Census of the Philippine Islands, 1903, Vol. 3, p. 652.

The entrance requirements for all first year students are: knowledge of English, equivalent to Baldwin's Second Reader, arithmetic--in English--through long division. Vocal music and drawing are required of all first year students.⁵⁵

For the greater part of this period, teacher training remained under the auspices of the Insular Schools, which were the Insular Normal School, the Philippine School of Arts and Trades, and the Philippine School of Commerce. It should be remembered that all insular schools depended entirely upon the support of the insular government. The Philippine Normal School, originally called the Insular Normal School, was re-organized in 1909. The course of study provided for instruction in the subject matter of the public school curriculum, and in addition, offered professional training as would best fit those who were in attendance for service as teachers. Four years' work in the academic department was required of every candidate for graduation, after the completion of the intermediate course. The industrial department of the Normal School gave instruction in lace making, embroidery, household arts, and housekeeping. Two years' work was required of individual candidates for graduation.

For many years, progress in the area of teacher training was slow, especially in the secondary level. The first secondary teachers were Americans, many of whom had served in the army and had no teaching experience. From the

⁵⁵Ibid., p. 653.

beginning of the establishment of secondary schools, it has been planned to train Filipinos for secondary instruction. The establishment of a state university and the government policy of sending Filipino students to the United States helped to solve the problem of teachers for the secondary schools.⁵⁶

In 1925 the Philippine Legislature enacted Act No. 3162 and Act No. 3196 to evaluate the Philippine school system. This legislation created a board of educational survey known as the Monroe Survey Commission of teacher education and training. It was noted by the Commission that about 95% of the teachers were not professionally trained, and this impaired the efficiency of instruction. The commission suggested the following:

1. Only professionally trained teachers should be employed.
2. At least four years of secondary normal school work should be required of prospective teachers.⁵⁷

Five years after the Monroe Survey, a report of the Secretary of Public Instruction to the Director of Education shows that there was an increase from 10.99 percent in 1925 to 24.99 percent in 1929 in the Filipino teachers who were

⁵⁶Eleventh Annual Report of the Director of Education, 1911: Pensionados in the United States, (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1912), p. 167.

⁵⁷Paul Monroe, Survey of the Educational System of the Philippines: Teacher Training Evaluation, (Manila: Bureau of Printing, 1926), p. 42.

graduates of the Philippine normal school, a college of education, or the provincial normal school. The number of elementary school teachers with professional training in 1929 was 3.58 percent over 1928. The enrollment in normal schools and normal curricula increased from 7,332 in September 1928 to 7,900 in September 1929. With regard to secondary teachers, the number of those who graduated in education was larger in 1929 than in 1928 by 269.⁵⁸

Qualifications of high-school teaching personnel in 1929 were outlined in the 1930 Annual Report of the Governor General of the Philippine Islands. In the addition to the regular educational requirements of the prospective high school teacher, namely, the attainment of a bachelor of education degree, the Bureau also has used the personal interview method as a means for determining the fitness of each applicant. These interviews afforded an opportunity for rating the general appearance, the physique, the quality of voice, and the command of spoken English. Thus the secondary schools were practically assured of securing qualified teachers.⁵⁹ Tables 4 and 5 describe the educational qualifications of teachers in the secondary schools.⁶⁰

⁵⁸Thirtieth Annual Report of the Director, 1930: The Professional Training of Teachers, (Manila: Bureau of Printing, 1931), p. 47.

⁵⁹Annual Report of the Governor General of the Philippine Islands, 1930: Bureau of Education (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1931), p.p. 45-47.

⁶⁰Ibid., p. 36.

TABLE 4

Educational Qualifications of Teachers In the Academic High Schools	Number
4 years of college work with special training for teaching (Ph.D.; Master)	35
4 years of college work with special training for teaching (U.S. Normal; Ph.D.; B.S.E.; A.B.)	769
College graduates without special training for teaching (B.S.; LL.B.; B.P.E.; B.S.C.)	153
Teachers who had three years of college work with special training for teaching	96
Teachers who were Philippine Normal graduates	60
Educational Qualifications of Teachers In the Secondary Trade Schools	Number
Teachers who had not finished secondary course	35
Teachers whose highest qualification is secondary- school graduation	14
Teachers who are graduates of Philippine Normal School	6
Teachers who are secondary trade-school graduates	80
Teachers who have had 1 to 3 years of college work with technical training consistent with their present work	9
Teachers who had three years of college work with special training for teaching (H.S.T.C.; B.E.)	7
Teachers with bachelor's master's degrees from college of agriculture, veterinary	16

TABLE 5

Educational Qualifications for Teachers In Agricultural and Rural High Schools	Number
Teachers who are secondary undergraduates	22
Teachers who are secondary graduates	9
Teachers who are Philippine Normal School graduates	7
Teachers who had graduated from farm schools, including C.L.A.S.	17
Teachers who are trade school graduates	6
Teachers with 4 or more years of college work with special training for teaching (U.S. Normal; B.S.E.; A.B.; M.A.)	25
Teachers who have had 1 to 3 years of college work with technical training	3
Teachers who had 4 years or more college work with special training in agriculture	40
Teachers with Bachelor's or Doctor's degrees from colleges of engineering; liberal arts	18

Tables 4 and 5 are a continuation of the description of the educational qualifications of teachers in the secondary schools of 1929. See 30th Annual Report of the Director of Education. (Manila: Bureau of Printing Office, 1931) p. 31.

Administration and supervision

The Bureau of Public Schools was originally created by Act No. 477 of the Philippine Commission in October 1902. It was then designated as the Bureau of Education and by virtue of the Executive Order No. 94 (1947), Section 83, the bureau was given its present name - Bureau of Public Schools.

The Bureau of Education was under the control of the Department of Public Instruction. At the head of the department was the secretary of public instruction, who was at the same time vice governor of the Islands and an appointee of the President of the United States. During American rule, the secretary of public instruction, which was the highest office in the Philippine public school system at the time, had always been filled by an American. The bureau was administered by the director of education, the title which was substituted for general superintendent of education during the incumbency of Dr. David P. Barrows. The director was appointed by the governor-general, with the approval of the Philippine Senate. The director had certain powers in general, such as to establish primary schools and night schools, to assign teachers and fix their salaries, prepare the curricula for all public schools under the bureau, attend to the construction of school-houses, hold normal institutes for teachers, and choose and recommend to the secretary of public instruction

the personnel who should fill the more important posts in the bureau.

The director of the bureau of education was assisted by an assistant director who was appointed by the governor-general, with the consent of the Philippine Senate.⁶¹

For the purpose of administration of education, the Philippine Islands was divided into school divisions.

Alzona describes it as follows:

From ten it has increased to forty-nine divisions, each under a division superintendent. The secretary of public instruction, upon recommendation of the education, appoints the division superintendents. The division superintendents are responsible to the director, and they represent him in the provinces, send reports to him from time to time.

Some of the duties of the division superintendent are to appoint municipal teachers and fix their salaries, determine the uses to which provincial and municipal schoolhouses shall be put, inspect regularly all the schools in his division, enforce the orders from the director and the prescribed curricula for primary and secondary schools. He is expected to be familiar with the varied details of academic and industrial instruction in his division.⁶²

The division superintendents were assisted by the division supervisors, who were responsible to him. Generally, there were in every division one academic and one industrial supervisor. They were specialists in their respective lines.

⁶¹Concepcion Aguila, Educational Legislation: The Law and Public Education, (Manila: Aguila Publications, 1956), p.p. 155-157.

⁶²Alzona, Education in the Philippines: Public School System, p. 192.

Besides the division supervisors, there were supervising teachers assisting the superintendent. Every school division was divided into districts. Each district was comprised of one or more municipalities, and was under a supervising teacher who was appointed by the secretary of public instruction upon recommendation of the director. The supervising teacher supervised all schools in towns and barrios in his district. He represented the division superintendent and was responsible to him.

The secondary school in a division was administered by a principal who was appointed by the secretary of public instruction upon recommendation of the director. They were directly responsible to the division superintendent, and through him, to the director.

Each secondary school was directly under a principal teacher who was chosen for his executive ability, professional training, and experience by the director of education. The secondary school principal was responsible for the administration and supervision of the school.

The duties of the secondary school principal, as specified by the director of education, are as follows:

1. He had the responsibility to see that the circulars and orders from the Bureau of Education are administered.
2. He is responsible for the smooth running of the school and the care and improvement of the premises.
3. He settles disputes among student and teachers.

4. He must preside at teachers' meetings.
5. He is required to write an annual report and other reports requested by the director of education from time to time.
6. He is required to teach from two to five academic periods daily. In a high school with less than six teachers, he must teach five period; with seven to twelve teachers, he must teach four periods; with thirteen to eighteen teachers, three periods; and with nineteen or more teachers, two periods.⁶³

Americans, until recent years, filled all secondary-school principalships; but the policy of "Filipinization" has led to the appointment of Filipinos to these posts. In 1928 out of 53 secondary-school principals, 24 were Filipinos.⁶⁴

In 1939, the General Office which carried the administrative function of the Bureau of Education, was reorganized. Under the reorganization, the secondary education division had charge of instruction on the secondary level. It suggested methods in the formulation of objectives in the different subjects in the secondary curriculum. It also initiated in-service education programs for secondary school teachers.

⁶³ Ibid., p.p. 238-239.

⁶⁴ Service Manual, 1917, published by the Bureau of Education, containing extracts of rules, regulations, and instructions for guidance of its personnel. New edition, 1929.

The secondary school principal was still appointed by the Secretary of Education upon the recommendation of the Director of Public Schools, if he was paid from national funds. If he was paid from local funds, he was appointed by the superintendent by authority of the Secretary of Education and upon previous approval of the Director of Public Schools. Most of the secondary principals were paid from provincial funds, but a good number of those administering vocational schools and general secondary schools located in the provincial capitals were paid from national funds.⁶⁵ The secondary school principal was responsible for the administration and supervision of the school.

The trade schools were administered and supervised by the secondary trade school principal. Secondary agricultural schools and rural high schools were under the administration of the secondary agricultural school principal. Both officials were the representatives of the Division Superintendent of Schools in their respective schools.

Other functional units or division were created under the reorganization of the Bureau of Education (Bureau of Public Schools) in 1939. Frenoza explains:

1. The Elementary Education Division takes charge of the improvement of instruction on the elementary level. It initiates methods of instruction

⁶⁵Frenoza, Philippine Educational System: Administrative and Supervision, p.p. 95-110.

in the formulation of aims and objectives in the elementary grades.

2. The Research Evaluation and Guidance Division conducts the survey testing program of the Bureau. It also provides leadership in educational research work of teachers and supervisors in the field by coordinating these research activities. It is in charge of the preparation and the standardization of tests used by the Bureau.
3. The Publication Division does the work of editing all publications of the Bureau. It also undertakes the printing and duplicating the lighter publication jobs. The printing of textbooks and pamphlets is done by the Bureau of Printing but under the direction of this division.
4. The Division of Adult and Community Education Division is in charge of providing citizenship training to adults as provided for in the Constitution. The activities of the Adult and Community Division consists of organizing adult education classes, preparation of instructional materials for these classes and supervision of these classes.
5. The Home Economics Division is in charge of the home economics instruction. It supervises the teaching of home economics in elementary and secondary schools.⁶⁶

⁶⁶Ibid., p.p. 120-121. See also Antonio Isidro, The Philippine Educational System of the Philippines, (Manila: Bookman, Inc., 1949), p.p. 74-75.

Most of the school divisions of the country have a general type of organization. At the head of the division is the Division Superintendent of Schools whose office is called the Division Office. Each division office has two staffs-the clerical staff and the supervisory staff which is composed of division supervisors. The division supervisory staff is composed of the Academic Supervisor, the Industrial Art Supervisor, the Home Economic Supervisor, the Supervisor of National Language, and the Health Supervisor. Divisions having large enrollment in secondary schools have, in addition, secondary English Supervisors and Supervisors for Secondary Schools. All Division Supervisors are not administrative officials but at certain times the division superintendent may delegate to them some of his power and duties. A division supervisor, when so empowered, acts in the name of his division superintendent. See Administrative Organization of the School Division, Frenoza, p.p. 125-126.

School finances

According to the Census of 1903, the revenue of the public school system was derived from several sources:

1. Insular - The expenses incurred in the interests of education here are met by the insular government, the provinces, and the municipalities. The salaries of the American supervisors and teachers, the reimbursements for traveling expenses, the office rent of division superintendents, and the cost of transporting these to the various towns - all these are paid by the insular treasury. The teachers and books for the provincial high schools are furnished by the insular government.
2. Provincial funds - The provincial revenues are likewise raised by a tax upon land to the amount of three-eighths of 1 percent of the valuation thereof. The policy of the insular government is to require the provincial governments to support the secondary schools as soon as their financial status will permit, paying not only for supplies, but also the salaries of American teachers.
3. Municipal school tax - By the requirements of the municipal code, it is mandatory that "proceeds of at least one-fourth of 1 percent of the lands and improvements as assessed shall be devoted exclusively to the support of free public schools and the provision and erection of suitable school building." There is no provision which limits expenditure for school purposes to this amount.
4. Voluntary contributions - Voluntary contributions may come from pupils, students, parents or other persons. The Medical and Dental Services, for example, are maintained by voluntary contributions from students. Parents and other persons may contribute materials, supplies, and labor in the building and repair of school buildings.
5. Income from land grants and donations and income from leased school sites and from school products.⁶⁷

⁶⁷Census of 1903 on the Philippine Islands, Sources of Revenues (Washington: Government Bureau of Printing, 1907), p. 691. See also Concepcion A. Aguila, Educational Legislation: Sources of School Revenue, 1956, p.p. 192-193 and Frenoza, Essentials of Philippine Educational System: Sources of School Revenues, 1964, p.p. 410-412.

Secondary schools finance

In the early years of the secondary schools under the American rule, one of the important problems of secondary instruction was finance. It was the intention of the law authorizing the opening of the secondary schools to make the provincial government bear all the expenses of the secondary school. However, the insular government had been paying the salaries of the teachers, on account of the inability of the provincial governments to shoulder all expenses.

Generally secondary schools are financed by the provinces, cities or municipalities. The province supports the provincial high school which is usually in the provincial capital. The money for the support of provincial schools is taken from the provincial school fund provided by Section 2111 1/2 of the Administration Code which reads:

School Fund - There shall be created in the provincial treasury a special fund to be known as the provincial school fund, to which shall be credited all amounts that the provincial board may from time to time, by resolution, transfer thereto from the provincial general fund: all income or profits from the operation of provincial schools. Said fund shall be available exclusively for the maintenance of provincial schools.⁶⁸

The municipal high schools are supported by the municipality with the aid of the provincial government. Some municipal schools are totally supported by the municipalities where they are established.⁶⁹

⁶⁸Aguila, Educational Legislation, p. 202.

⁶⁹Ibid., 203.

Provincial trade high schools are supported jointly by the provincial governments and the National Government (insular government) which pays most of the salaries of the teachers and school employees, in addition to aid given to the provinces for these schools.⁷⁰

School expenditures in 1926 show that the insular government for the school purposes paid ₱16,268,742.43, an increase of 6.17 percent over the insular-school expenditures in 1925. It is believed that the employment of many provincial teachers for secondary schools exceeded the expenditures in 1925. In June 1926, the insular positions assigned to academic secondary schools were reduced to not more than 20 percent of the insular teachers allotted to the various divisions. As a result of this reduction of the number of insular teachers in the academic secondary schools, 550 provincial teachers were assigned to these schools in 1926, an increase of 63.69 percent when compared with 336 in 1925.⁷¹

Provincial funds were not enough to pay the salaries of these teachers and other necessary expenses for the maintenance of the academic secondary schools. The director of education recommended that tuition fees had to be collected

⁷⁰Ibid., p. 204.

⁷¹Twenty-seventh Annual Report of the Director of Education, School Expenditures: Secondary Schools (Manila: Bureau of Printing, 1927), p. 85.

from students attending such schools. By the end of 1926, thirty-three provincial high schools charged tuition fees ranging from four pesos to twenty-five pesos annually. According to the enrollment for September, 1926, 34,285 students or 59.7 percent of the total secondary enrollment paid tuition.⁷²

Another recommendation which had been made repeatedly, found in the Twenty-Seventh Annual Report of the Director of Education, is that a provincial high school fund must be created by levying special taxes and setting aside for school purposes at least 25 percent of the total provincial income.⁷³

Table 6 shows the net total of governmental expenditures for public-school purposes for each of the five years immediately preceding 1922.

An examination of the table shows that the 1922 expenditure per capita was about 11 centavos (5 1/2 cents equivalent, during that year) less than the 1921 expenditure per capita and that the 1922 expenditure per pupil was about ₱1.81 less than the 1921 expenditure per pupil. The figures above do not specify expenditures for secondary high schools, for each of the five years except 1922. The 1922 total

⁷²Alzona, Cost of Secondary Instruction, p. 239.

⁷³Twenty-Seventh Annual Report of the Director of Education, p. 86.

TABLE 6

Year	Net Total of Governmental Expenditures for Public School Purposes	Governmental Expenditure per Capita*	Governmental Expenditure per pupil*
1917	₱ 9,222,321.32	₱0.915	₱16.129
1918	10,881,699.97	1.055	19.180
1919	14,271,126.55	1.353	22.489
1920	18,211,539.70	1.687	23.183
1921	22,891,718.29	2.020	24.249
1922	22,068,939.58	1.909	22.249

* Expenditure per capita is figured on the basis of the total population.

* Expenditure per pupil is figures on the basis of average monthly enrollment for all of the school months in the fiscal year except June, the opening month, during which many of the primary pupils are held out of school because of normal institutes that are then in session.⁷⁴

⁷⁴Twenty-Fourth Annual Report, Bureau of Education, Finances (Manila: Bureau of Printing, 1923), p. 28.

expenditures on provincial high schools, agricultural, trade and commercial high schools were ₱2,538,132.87.

Table 7 shows the total governmental expenditures per capita and per pupil cost of education, 1923 to 1936 inclusive.

TABLE 7

PER CAPITA AND PER PUPIL COST OF EDUCATION 1923-1936⁷⁵

Year	Total School Expenditures	Per Capita Cost	Per Pupil Cost
1923	₱22,202,532.49	₱2.01	₱19.97
1924	24,529,540.55	2.18	22.07
1925	24,148,485.49	2.12	22.75
1926	25,424,434.82	2.20	23.95
1927	27,619,506.82	2.35	25.12
1928	28,994,965.98	2.43	26.09
1929	30,588,352.11	2.53	26.30
1930	31,079,255.54	2.54	26.61
1931	30,264,368.55	2.44	25.11
1932	27,911,060.10	2.22	23.26
1933	23,886,066.35	1.87	20.34
1934	22,957,919.85	1.78	19.13
1935	25,053,995.18	1.97	20.38
1936	33,372,034.22	2.14	19.15

⁷⁵ Frenoza, Philippine Educational System; Financing the Public School System, p. 409. See also Twenty-Seventh Annual Report of the Director of Education, School Expenditures, p. 88.

Per capita cost of education - Per capita cost of education means how much each person living in the country theoretically contributes to the cost of public education. It also means how much per person the government spends for educational purposes. It is found by dividing the total amount of annual expenditures by the population for that year. Table 7 shows the per capita cost during the pre-war years.

Per pupil cost of education - Per pupil cost of education means the estimated amount spent for the education of one pupil. It is found by dividing the annual school expenditure by the total enrollment for that year. The per pupil cost of education varies considerably in the different levels of instruction. The estimates for 1937-1938 were as follows:

1. Secondary academic student ₱ 36.11
2. Secondary home economics student. 43.84
3. Secondary agricultural student 103.853
4. Secondary trade student 48.00

TABLE 8

EXPENDITURES FOR EDUCATION (IN THOUSANDS
OF PESOS) AND REVENUE⁷⁶

Year	Insular or National	Provincial	Municipal	Voluntary Contribution	Total
1907	3,112	217	1,508	?	4,837
1909	3,924	285	2,134	?	6,348
1916	4,708	464	2,395	352	7,919
1921	14,314	3,279	4,709	1,347	23,649
1926	16,292	3,563	5,569	1,455	26,879
1931	20,389	4,855	5,021	1,133	31,398
1936	15,773	4,014	5,239	466	25,492
1937	18,050	4,479#	6,171	504	29,204
1940	23,424*	Y	Y	988	Y

Includes chartered cities

* Appropriation, not expenditures

Y Figures not available

⁷⁶Condrado Benitez, History of the Philippines (Manila: Ginn and Company, 1954), p. 343. See Yearbook of Philippine Statistics, 1946, (Manila: Bureau of Printing, 1947), p. 23.

Conclusion

In the Philippines, a public school is a school supported by the State. Since the 1900's, various types of public schools have been founded. Among them are: the elementary schools, the academic high schools located in Manila and in the provincial capitals, the vocational schools, the insular schools (Philippine Normal School, Philippine School of Arts and Trade, Agricultural School, and the Philippine Nautical School), the special schools such as the Philippine School of Commerce and the School for the Deaf and Blind, and the University of the Philippines, which is the state university. All these institutions in the period of the American rule were maintained by government funds.

After the foundation of the Philippine public school system through Act No. 74, the organization of the different levels of education was effected gradually. In 1902, Act No. 372 reorganized the provincial governments and authorized the provincial boards to establish free secondary education.

A secondary school, which is also known as high school, may be defined as a school where the higher levels of a common school education are taught. It is designed for students who have passed through elementary grades. Most high schools are preparatory schools for college or university. The secondary schools in the Philippines are general

high school (academic), vocational secondary level, classified as agricultural, rural trade, or commerce schools, and private secondary schools.

The aims of all types of secondary education are to provide an opportunity to discover special talents or abilities, and to develop these through occupational training courses so that the student will be able to earn a living after finishing secondary school. The secondary school of all types advance elementary schools' emphasis on the spiritual-moral and civic training necessary to produce Filipino citizens of good moral character, thus providing teaching of individual development also.

Secondary education in the early American period of the Philippine educational history stressed the academic subjects. At the start, secondary education in Manila totaled six years: the first two were considered for preparatory training, and the last four for the secondary curriculum proper. The entire curriculum was purely academic. It aimed primarily to provide liberal education and to prepare the students for admission to college. Patterned after the American high schools, the changing curricula of the Philippine high schools, from 1904 to 1935 were invariably described by the prescription of the following subjects: mathematics-algebra, plane geometry, and advanced algebra; English-composition and literature both English and American; history-general, U.S., and

colonial history and economics; science-zoology, geology, physics, botany and physical geography; and language-Spanish and Latin. With little variations, this curriculum pattern prevailed for more than three decades.

The academic curriculum provided the basis of what at that time might be called general education. Actually, it partook of the nature of a vocational course because a large number of students sought to enroll in it in order to prepare themselves for jobs in business, government offices, the teaching service and commercial houses. Only a small percentage went to high school to prepare for college.

The vocational function of the academic curriculum was brought about by social conditions at that time. Social and economic opportunities became abundant with the coming of the Americans. Business firms were established and more and more government offices were organized. Under the American regime, the ability to speak and write English became very valuable assets. Many went to school to learn English and to meet the mandates of the new ruler. The services of those who transacted business in English and wrote correspondence in English were in great demand.

The original secondary course under the Americans, therefore, provided for vocational and academic instruction. Later, the vocational courses were dropped, one by one, and the academic course alone remained and received much emphasis. The course of study in the secondary schools had undergone

frequent revisions in an attempt to make it more suitable to the needs of Filipino students. In 1914, the study of current events, Philippine history and government, were introduced in the secondary curriculum as an answer to the repeated demands of Filipino leaders.

The pressing demand for those who knew how to speak English could not, however, continue forever. With the constant increase in the number of high schools and the ever increasing number of students attending these schools, the abundance of the jobs diminished gradually. More than three decades of academic curriculum resulted in over-supply of high school graduates.

The public secondary schools have always been co-educational. The number of girls had been relatively small in the early period of secondary education. From 1903 to 1913, the proportion of girls to boys was 15.7; from 1913 to 1923 the proportion increased to 32.5 (see Table 9) for the secondary school enrollment by sexes from 1903 to 1929.⁷⁷ The number of pupils graduating from public secondary schools in different years is indicated by figures shown on Table 10.⁷⁸

⁷⁷Alzona, p.p. 239-240.

⁷⁸Ibid., p. 241.

TABLE 9

ENROLLMENT IN THE PUBLIC SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Year	Boys	Girls	Total
1903	357	93	450
1908	1,084	240	1,324
1913	4,005	748	4,753
1918	11,974	3,394	15,368
1919	11,588	3,888	15,476
1920	12,623	4,732	17,355
1921	16,608	6,824	23,432
1922	21,800	9,711	31,511
1923	26,435	12,749	39,184
1924	31,115	16,304	47,419
1925	34,440	18,641	53,081
1926	36,268	21,099	57,367
1927	38,138	23,270	62,315
1928	42,235	26,400	68,635
1929	45,526	28,937	74,463

TABLE 10

NUMBER OF PUPILS GRADUATING FROM
PUBLIC SECONDARY SCHOOLS

<u>Year</u>	<u>Graduates</u>
1906-1907	3
1907-1908	11
1908-1909	88
1909-1910	122
1910-1911	222
1911-1912	221
1912-1913	342
1913-1914	407
1915-1916	469
1916-1917	667
1917-1918	1,077
1918-1919	1,205
1919-1920	1,334
1920-1921	1,538
1921-1922	1,836
1922-1923	2,191
1923-1924	2,907
1924-1925	3,588
1925-1926	4,527
1926-1927	6,195
1927-1928	7,412
1928-1929	8,953

The method of instruction which prevailed in the secondary schools during the Spanish era was rote memorization. With the coming of the Americans, this type of teaching was abandoned and replaced by American pedagogical methods of instruction. Teachers were required to prepare lesson plans and to ask pupils thought-provoking questions. The famous Kilpatrick project method had also found its way into the secondary schools and helped to revitalize instructional techniques. In order to improve classroom instruction, the size of the class was limited to 42 students. Defective teaching methods of individual teachers were remedied by means of careful supervision, and the establishment of Normal Institutes for teachers all over the Islands.

The system of examinations was entirely different from the Spanish, in that the written examination replaced the oral examination. However, in 1925, the system was revised, and final examinations were abolished. Instead, frequent objective type tests were given during the year. The educational measurement and research section of the academic division of the Bureau of Education prepared guidelines for local school officials in constructing objective tests.

After a critical survey of the Philippine educational system in 1924, the Monroe Commission offered several constructive recommendations for the improvement of secondary instruction. The first was that a department of secondary education be created in the Bureau of Education headed by a

general supervisor. He would be assisted by four special supervisors of rural-high, normal school, academic-high school, and household-arts curricula. A second recommendation was that the present system of secondary education was exclusively of an academic character and was not well adapted to the Philippine Society. This condition was creating social and economic problems. It recommended that secondary schools should provide training in agriculture, commerce, and industry. The Commission also recommended that the high school principal should be given more opportunities to exercise educational leadership by freeing him from restrictive regulations. It was also believed that it would be highly desirable if high-school principals were assured of tenure in office.

With regard to the subjects of study, the commission made several recommendations. It would make algebra and geometry elective, rather than required subjects as was prescribed. It recommended the introduction of the following courses: Filipino community life and institution, oriental civilization, and the history of western culture with emphasis on American civilization.

The lack of mastery in the language of instruction, English, on the part of the teachers and pupils was an important problem which faced the secondary schools. The Monroe Commission recommended that if secondary instruction was to be effective, much attention should be given to the improvement of the teaching of English, and that the local

dialect should be employed in teaching character education in the lower grades.

The first secondary teachers were Americans, many of whom had served in the United States Army and had no teaching experience. It was necessary for the Philippine Commission to appoint Americans as secondary teachers and secondary-school principals, because of the lack of qualified Filipino teachers who could speak the English language during the early years of the American regime. This lack of qualified Filipino secondary teachers promoted the establishment of a state university (University of the Philippines), and the creation of normal institutes conducted by American teachers and enhanced by the government policy of sending Filipino students to study in the United States. All these agencies training teachers helped to solve the shortage of teachers for the secondary schools. The subsequent increase in the number of trained Filipino teachers prompted the Bureau of Education to raise the qualifications of teachers in the secondary schools. Qualifications of high-school teaching personnel were outlined in the 1930 Annual Report of the Governor General of the Philippine Islands to the President of the United States. In addition to the regular educational requirement of four years' college work, including pedagogical courses, the prospective secondary school teacher had to hold a bachelor of science in education degree. The Bureau of Education had also used the

personal-interview method as a means of determining the fitness of the applicant. These interviews afforded an opportunity for rating the general appearance, the quality of voice, and the command of spoken English of the applicant.

In terms of administration and supervision, a division had several secondary schools and each of these schools functioned as a separate administrative unit. All school divisions had at least one provincial high school which was maintained by provincial funds. Larger school divisions may have had several provincial high schools which were situated in centrally located towns.

The secondary high school during the American era was administered and supervised by a secondary high school principal. The trade school was under the secondary trade school principal, the secondary agricultural schools were administered and supervised by the secondary agricultural school principal. All of these officials were representatives of the Division Superintendent of Schools. The secondary schools of the City of Manila had a special organization. The schools of Manila were supervised by the Superintendent of the City Schools, who was a Presidential appointee. Each secondary school of the division was an independent unit under a principal who was directly responsible to the Superintendent. Each school had an assistant principal.

Financing secondary school was and is still one of the most important problems during the American period. It was the intention of the Law of March 7, 1902 which authorized the opening of secondary schools to make the provincial government bear all expenses of the secondary school. However, the insular government had paid the salaries of teachers, on account of the inability of the provincial government to do so. The insular aid was gradually withdrawn, and in 1929 less than 10 percent of the insular teachers taught in high schools. The provincial secondary schools in 1923 cost the government 2,416,868 pesos, an amount which was almost 10 percent of the total expenditure for public education in that year. The annual cost of secondary education per pupil in 1923, was 50 pesos (twenty-five dollars) in American money at that time.

The director of education recommended that provincial funds must be increased through tuition fees paid by the secondary school students. By 1926, thirty-three high schools charged tuition fees ranging from 4 to 25 pesos a year. Another recommendation was that a provincial school fund be created by levying special taxes, and setting aside 25 percent of the total provincial income for high school expenditures.

The Monroe Commission recommended that whatever additional funds were made available should not be spent for the expansion of educational facilities, but rather for the

improvement of the quality of instruction, and the training of teachers, in order to stimulate secondary education which ultimately would enhance the prosperity of the country.

CHAPTER V

DEVELOPMENT OF THE PHILIPPINE SECONDARY SCHOOL SYSTEM SECOND PERIOD - 1946-1978

The granting of independence to the Philippines and the social and economic changes which affected the life of the Filipinos, as a result of World War II called for the further revision not only of the secondary education, but of the entire educational system.¹ The evolution of the Philippine secondary education from the 1900's to 1946 showed a marked influence from American secondary education, as was examined in Chapter IV.

The main concern from 1946 to 1978 was to develop a more Philippine character in the secondary schools. This second phase of the development of the secondary school system of the Philippines is discussed extensively in this chapter. After an overview of the organization of the school system in toto as a backdrop, it includes the following:

- (1) re-organization of the secondary school system, (2) aims,
- (3) curriculum organization, (4) enrollment, (5) evaluation

¹ UNESCO World Survey of Education, Philippine Secondary Education Vol. III, (New York: International Documentary Service Division of Columbia University Press, with United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization, Paris, 1961), p. 592.

of the school system, (6) instructional materials and textbooks, (7) teacher training, (8) administration and supervision, (9) financing of schools, (10) new approaches to secondary education, and (11) what still remains of American influence.

The formal education system in the Philippines has two sets of schools, the government and non-government schools. The government schools, often referred to as public schools, are of three kinds: (a) those under the Bureau of Public Schools, (b) those under the Bureau of Vocational Education, (c) and the colleges and the universities. The non-government schools, also called private schools are sectarian or non-sectarian.

Both public and private schools offer three levels of schooling: elementary, secondary, and collegiate. Some children start their pre-school education in public or private kindergarten or nursery schools. Pre-school children's ages range from four to six years. In the public schools, pre-school education is not a requirement for admission to the first grade in the elementary schools.

Elementary education in the public schools covers six years: four years of primary education and two years of intermediate education. A grade one child in the public schools starts schooling at the age of seven. Elementary education is compulsory for all children between the ages of seven and thirteen.

There are two types of public secondary schools: the general and the vocational. These two types are also found among private schools. Secondary education requires four years of schooling. There are, however, a few public and private special vocational schools which require only one year of schooling.

Higher education is offered in the public normal schools, state colleges and universities, community colleges, and in private schools and universities. Universities and colleges offer at least 4-year courses leading to a bachelor's degree. Civil, mechanical, electrical, industrial or chemical engineering degree requires five years of study.

According to the Philippine Yearbook, which was published in 1977, as of January 1976 there were 8 state universities, 36 state colleges, and 38 private universities and colleges in the Philippines.² Created by Republic Acts, the state universities and colleges have sought to redirect their orientation and revise their major programs giving greater emphasis to agriculture, fisheries and vocational-technical programs in keeping with the demands of the time. Of the 44 state colleges and universities, 17 were basically agriculture-oriented while 10 are strong in trades, technology, and engineering, and education.

²Philippine Yearbook, 1977, Education (Manila: National Economic and Development Authority Office, 1977), p.p. 245, 253-257.

Of the 38 private schools, 12 were under Catholic auspices, while 24 were non-sectarian, and the remaining two were allied with Protestant denominations.³ The University of Santo Tomas, was founded in 1611. It is the oldest university of the Philippines. The private schools continue to direct their activities to the maintenance of standards and improvement of the quality of instruction. The courses offered in these private institutions of higher learning are technological courses, commerce and business administration, and professional education identical with the courses offered in the state colleges and universities.

There are 12 institutions of higher learning in Manila offering graduate courses.⁴ These are all private schools. Listing of state colleges and universities for graduate schools was not available at the time this research was written. Four of these universities offer 4-5 years doctorate degree course, and the remaining 8 offer a two year master's degree course.

School and educational activities administered by other agencies aside from the Department of Education are as follows: The National Defense College, The Philippine Military Academy of the Department of National Defense,

³Ibid., p. 255.

⁴Bureau of Private Schools, Directory Authorized Private Schools and Courses, School Year 1970-1971 (Manila: Bureau of Private Printing, 1971), p. v.

agricultural extension programs, training information program for community development, training program in fishing culture under the Philippine Fisheries Commission, manpower development programs under the Manpower and Youth Council.⁵

The structure of the formal system of education of the Philippines is shown in the diagram on page 164.⁶

The Department of Education controls the educational machinery of the country, and it provides leadership and direction of education matters all over the Philippines through offices and bureaus under it.

The organizational chart of the Department of Education is shown in the diagram on page 165.⁷ As indicated in the chart, the highest official in the Department is the Secretary of Education who is assisted by two undersecretaries. All these officials are appointed by the President of the Philippines with the consent and approval of the Commission on Appointment of the Congress of the Philippines.

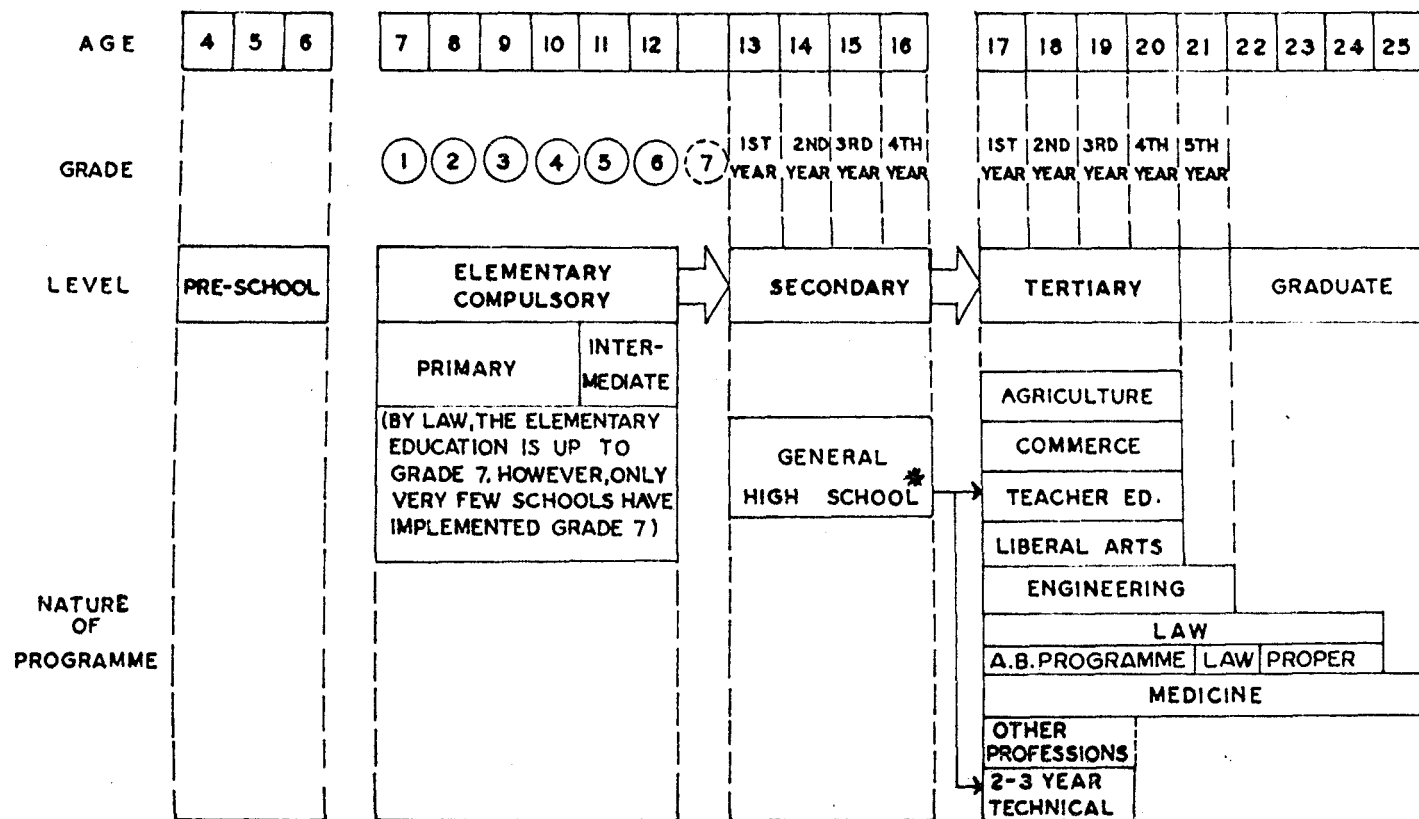
The Board of National Education, which was created by the Republic Act No. 1124, and was amended by the Republic Act No. 4372 is with the following functions: to formulate general education objectives and policies, to coordinate the

⁵Arthur L. Carson, The Story of Philippine Education (Quezon City: New Day Publishers, 1978), p.p. 165-172.

⁶Philippine Yearbook, 1977, p.p. 228, 230.

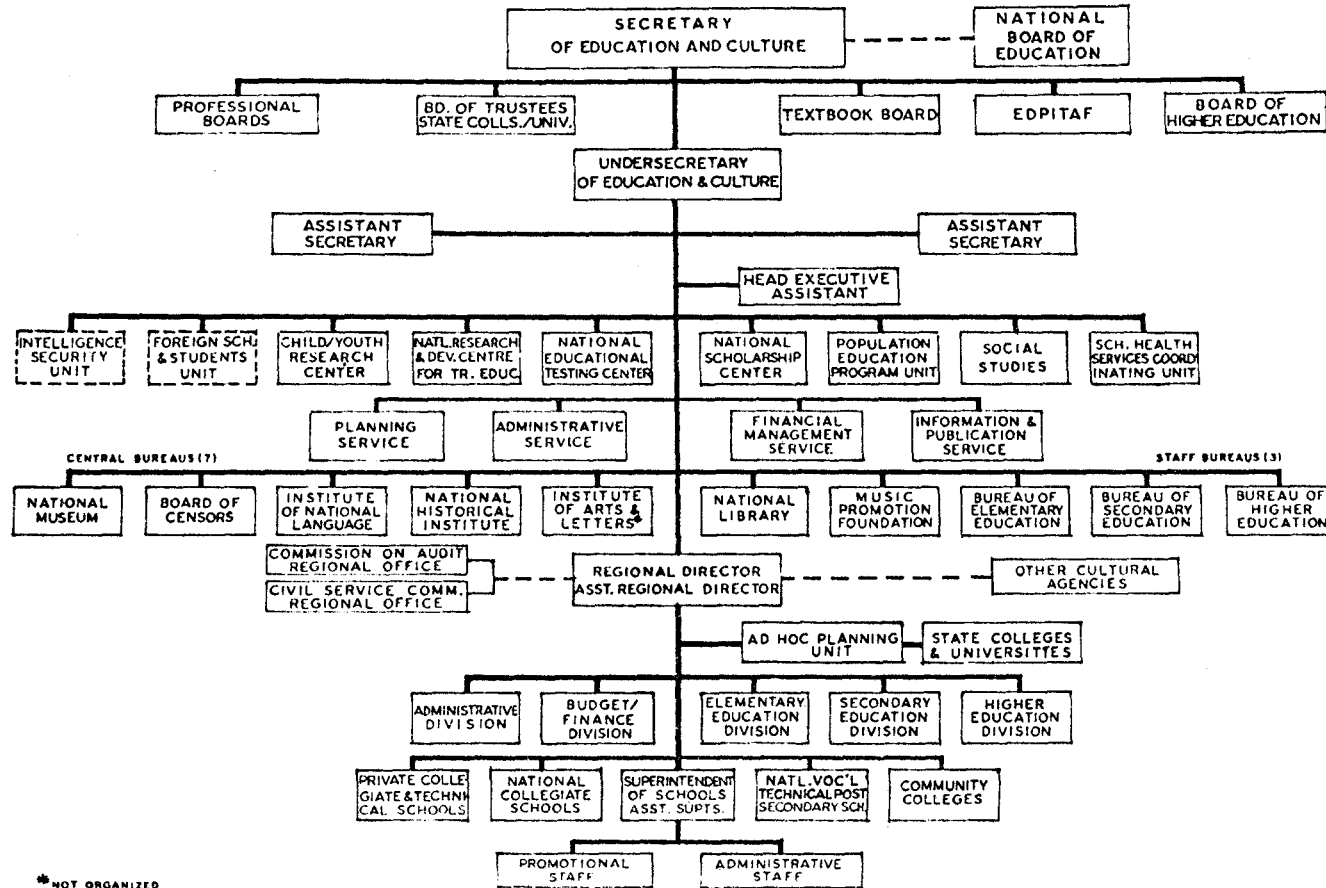
⁷Ibid.

STRUCTURE OF THE FORMAL SYSTEM OF EDUCATION : 1974



* GENERAL HIGH SCHOOLS AND VOCATIONAL HIGH SCHOOLS TO RUN THE SAME PROGRAMME AS OF SCHOOL YEAR 1975.
 SOURCE: DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION AND CULTURE.

ORGANIZATION CHART OF THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION AND CULTURE: 1976



* NOT ORGANIZED

SOURCE: DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION AND CULTURE.

activities, and functions of all educational institutions in the Philippines, with the purpose of carrying out the provisions of the constitution, and to accomplish an integrated, well-rounded nationalistic and democracy-inspired educational system in the Philippines. The Board of National Education works in cooperation with the Department of Education, and it is composed of eight members headed by the Secretary of Education.

The Department of Education is responsible for the administration and supervision of all public schools, and it has regulatory power over private schools. The Secretary retains final approval of such matters which involve basic policies which are important to the legal responsibilities of the department.

Under the Department of Education the bureaus and offices that are most concerned with the educational system of the Islands are the Bureau of Public Schools, the Bureau of Vocational Education and the Bureau of Private Schools. The other offices are the Institute of National Language, the National Library and the Philippine Historical Commission.

The Director of Public Schools directs and controls the public school system in the country excluding the vocational schools. The Director is assisted by two Assistant Directors. These three officials are appointed by the President of the Philippines and their appointments have to be confirmed by the Commission on Appointments.

The General Office Staff consists of the promotional staff and administrative staff. The promotional staff is composed of the officials in the Adult and Community Education Division, Secondary Education Division, Elementary Education Division, Home Economics Division, Home Industries Division, Special Projects and Services Division, School Health Division, Research, Evaluation and Guidance Division, Publications and Documentation Division, Educational Broadcasting and Audiovisual Division, and Teacher Education Unit. The administrative staff includes personnel of the Accounting Division, Records Division, Property Division, School Plant Division, Investigation and Legal Division, Personnel Division, and School Finance Division. All these staff of the General Office help formulate the policies of the Bureau and perform other tasks concerning the improvement of instruction in the different levels of the educational system.

The Bureau of Public Schools controls all public school divisions in all parts of the Philippines, except the vocational schools and the private schools. These divisions are the provincial city, and regional teachers' colleges. Each division consists of the following: a school superintendent, who is the chairman; supervisory and administrative staff; elementary and secondary principals; teachers and other school officials, who are directly involved with instructional, administrative, and supervisory matters.

The Bureau of Vocational Education is headed by a Director with two Assistant Directors, one of whom takes care of educational affairs and field supervision and the other takes charge of administrative services.

The General Office of the Bureau of Vocational Education which is located in Manila consists of six divisions: the Trade-Technical and Industrial Division; the Agricultural Education Division; the Fishery Education; the Teacher Division; the Medical, Dental and Health Education Division; the Accounting Division; the Legal and Investigation Division; the Personnel Division; the Budget and Finance Division and the Information and Publication Division.

The promotional and administrative divisions are further divided into sections and units in order to assume specific functions and responsibilities with the end in view of rendering efficient service in promoting and enhancing vocational education in the Philippines.

The Bureau of Vocational Education is charged with the responsibility of administration and supervision of all programs of public, vocational and technical schools in the country. The Bureau of Vocational Education is highly centralized. The administrative and supervisory structure of the bureau is similar to that of the Bureau of Public Schools from which it emerged. It follows the same line and staff organization except that the field superintendents take charge of only one or two schools and have no district supervisors

nor elementary school principals. All vocational schools are administered and supervised through the vocational superintendents and are assisted by a principal or a registrar in the case of bigger schools.

The Bureau of Private Schools is headed by a Director, who plans, directs and coordinates activities relating to the establishment, administration and supervision of private schools, colleges, and universities. He is assisted by an Assistant Director, an Executive Assistant and Officials in the Instruction and Curriculum Division, Legal Division, Permit and Recognition Division, and the Division of Evaluation, Research and Statistics.

The Bureau of Private Schools is charged with the responsibility of regulating and supervising all private schools, colleges, and universities in the country. The Director is appointed by the President of the Philippines upon recommendation of the Secretary of Education and with the consent of the Commission on Appointments.

Private schools are generally classified into two categories: the sectarian and non-sectarian. Sectarian schools are those that are run and operated by religious organizations such as Catholic and Protestant. Among the sectarian institutions are: the University of Sto. Tomas, Ateneo de Manila, Silliman University, and Central University. Non-sectarian institutions are those that are controlled and operated by private individuals or corporations

such as the University of the East, National University, Arellano University and Feati University.

The inspection and recognition of private schools, colleges and universities is a function of the Secretary of Public Instruction by virtue of Act No. 2706.⁸

Reorganization of the Philippine public secondary school system

A committee on the Reorganization of Secondary Education was created in 1931. It recommended the adoption of the general high school (comprehensive high school plan), embracing all curriculums and constituting one unified organization. The intervention of the Second World War disrupted the implementation of the reform. It was only in 1945 that all public schools started to offer a general curriculum. However, studies of the system pointed out its failure to instill in the students the vocational skills demanded by the growing economy.⁹

The Department of Public Information on the Philippine Education reports that the 1957 Revised Educational Program proposed the adoption of the 2-2 Plan, in which the first two years of the secondary school were devoted to a general

⁸Macario Naval and Gaudencio V. Aquino, Administration and Supervision for Philippine Schools (Quezon City: Alemar-Phoenix, 1967), p. 18.

⁹Report of the Magsaysay Committee on General Education, Toward General Education in the Philippines (Manila: University of the East, 1960), p. 156.

education and the last two to either a vocational or an academic stream. The Plan was never fully implemented owing to lack of funds, indifference of students to the vocational phase of the program, and the desire of many parents to prepare their children for white-collar jobs.¹⁰

In 1964, the Subcommittee on Secondary Education studied several plans of curriculum organization for general secondary schools. After several months of meeting, the Subcommittee endorsed the 4-1 Plan. The characteristics of the 4-1 Plan are:

It has four years of basic high school and one year college preparatory. The first four years are intended to provide general education for all high school students. The additional year provided for those who intended to pursue courses in college.

It provides possibilities for the graduates of the basic course who would like to enter the world of work to take higher courses in vocational and technical education.¹¹

The Committee on Administrative Policy created by the Board of National Education on March 4, 1968 redefined the broad and basic policies on secondary education and submitted proposed revisions on the secondary program. The recommendation of the Committee is known as the 3-2 Plan. It is described as follows:

¹⁰General Policies on Education 1967-1972, Secondary Education (Manila: Board of National Education, 1972), p. 9.

¹¹Ibid., p. 10.

The 3-2 Plan would provide common general education in the first three years and specialization in the last two years. The first stage consisting of three years is intended to be organized as a community high school in the towns with limited resources and small high school population. The plan would allow the community schools to provide general education for the vast majority of high school students in the localities where these schools are established.¹²

A detailed description of the 3-2 Plan is given by Antonio Isidro, Consultant-Coordinator of the Board of National Education, as follows:

The Technical Committee on Secondary Education has made a study of a new program of secondary schools which will meet the new objectives and policy of the administration. In lieu of the 4-year secondary school, it is proposed to organize community high schools of three years which will give general education and emphasize vocational courses tied up with the resources or industry of the town. Along with this, it is also proposed to have 5-year high schools which are made up of the 3-year community high school plus two years of a strictly college-preparatory courses.¹³

It is believed that the 2-year secondary school above the 3-year community high school would be devoted mainly to the preparation of the student for college. The student would have the following options upon finishing the 3-year community high school: he might stop schooling and engage in a vocation; he might pursue further training in a vocational career. Those who desired more intensive vocational training could

¹²Ibid., p. 11.

¹³The New Secondary School (Quezon City: Alemar-Phoenix Publishing House, Inc., 1972), p. 74. See also Isidro's The Structure of Our School System in Trends and Issues in Philippine Education (Manila: Alemar-Phoenix Publishing House, Inc., 1972), p. 75.

go to the agricultural, trade, commerce or business for another two years. Those who intended to go to college would study in the 2-year high school, which is designed for college preparation.

The 3-2 Plan was implemented, and after 4 years of implementation, the Board of National Education approved a new concept of the 2-2 Plan on September 15, 1971. This 2-2 Plan was a variation of the old 2-2 Plan, proposed by the Technical Committee on Secondary Curricula for experimentation in selected pilot secondary schools, at the beginning of the school year of 1973-1974.

In the first two years both general and vocational secondary schools would offer the basic or common curriculum of academic courses with one unit of Practical Arts. In the last two years, the general secondary schools would offer a pre-college academic curriculum with one unit of vocational elective each year. The vocational secondary school would offer more specialized vocational courses with one unit of academic elective each year.

The advent of the Martial Law in 1972 marked a turning point where far-reaching measures began towards fundamental and long range reforms in the Philippine society.¹⁴ Education

¹⁴Gregorio F. Zaide, Philippine History: Martial Law and the New Society (Manila: The Modern Book Company, 1973), Chapter XXXIII, p.p. 382-384. Martial Law proclaimed by President Ferdinand Marcos. Alarmed by the rising increase of communist subversion President Marcos signed Proclamation No. 1081 which placed the entire Philippines under martial law. President Marcos made it clear to the Filipinos the objectives for declaring martial law were to save the Republic and to form a new society.

likewise moved forward in pursuing the developmental goals set by the government.

In 1973, the Board of National Education was renamed The National Board of Education, but has retained its statutory powers and functions provided by the Republic Act No. 4372. Additional functions have been given to the Board through Presidential Decree No. 6-A, known as the Educational Development Decree of 1972.¹⁵

Gregorio Zaide has the following to say on the need of the reorganization of the school system:

For many years in the past our educational system has been criticized by nationalist scholars and educators because of its defects, as follows:

1. It gives great emphasis on academic studies and neglects vocational training. The result is an oversupply of graduates for white-collar jobs and graduates in law, liberal arts, and education.

2. It is patterned after the American system of education, hence it is still colonialistic in curriculum and perspective.

3. It has practically ignored the teaching of modern sciences so that our country is lagging behind many countries of the world in scientific knowledge.

4. It does not consider the actual conditions of our economy. The Philippines is an agricultural country, yet few students enroll in agricultural courses.

¹⁵General Policies on Education 1973-1974, A Report of the National Board of Education, 1973-74 (Manila: National Board of Education, 1975), p.p. 2-3.

5. It is not geared to the need of helping the school graduates to be employed in shops and factories. Thus thousands of graduates of our schools and universities become jobless every year.¹⁶

The Educational Development Decree of 1972 was designed to improve the Philippine educational system. Its goals are as follows: to achieve an accelerating rate of economic development and social progress, to assure the full participation of everyone in the country's national growth, and to awaken the Filipinos' national consciousness and promote desirable cultural values in the changing world. The Educational Decree of 1972 provides for a ten-year educational development program to accomplish its goals.

In the reorganization of the school system, the old Department of Education has been transformed into the Department of Education and Culture, with three bureaus: Bureau of Elementary Education, Bureau of Secondary Education, and Bureau of Higher Education. The curriculum for all levels is being revamped to give more stress on the teaching of modern sciences and vocational arts. To foster nationalism and to patronize Filipino publishers, the use of school textbooks written by foreign authors and published in foreign countries is prohibited since the beginning of the school year of 1976-1977.

¹⁶Zaide, Philippine History, p.p. 390-391.

Aims of secondary education

One significant decision of the National Board of Education was the approval of the revised secondary education program in 1973. Its gradual implementation on a year to year basis was started during the first semester of the school year 1974-1975. The general aims of secondary education in the early American rule of the Philippines were primarily to provide liberal education and to prepare the students for admission to college. The general functions of secondary schools as approved by the National Board of Education in 1973 are the continuation of general education started from the elementary school, preparation for a vocation and preparation for college. The aims of the American secondary school have not completely disappeared in the structure of Philippine secondary education, and these are reflected in general objectives of secondary education. The gradual departure from the aims of the American secondary education is shown in the specific objectives of secondary education of the Philippines as they became more nationalistic: "to enable the student to develop a commitment to the goals of national development . . . , to understand the wide possibilities of arts and the sciences as a permanent source of pleasure and profit, to acquire the basic occupational skills, knowledge and information essential in obtaining gainful employment, to develop the ability to react

intelligently to mass media and other life situations, to obtain experience and form desirable attitudes for understanding himself, his own people and other races, and to demonstrate understanding, acquisition, application of the basic methodologies of the branches of human knowledge in order to promote his physical, intellectual, emotional and social well-being."¹⁷

Curriculum organization

Secondary education in the Philippines has been the subject of continuing studies, seminars, and conferences by various educational groups and associations in an effort to design a kind of secondary education which can provide not only a basis of general education but also training for employment.

In the Report of the Task Force to the National Board of Education, Chairman Dr. Arturo M. Guerrero defined the revisions of the secondary school curriculum as the "product of many minds which weighted, approved and disapproved proposals in the light of certain goals and aims, principles and concepts."¹⁸

After World War II, the general curriculum for secondary schools (both academic and vocational courses) was

¹⁷General Policies on Education, 1973-1974, p.p. 5-7.

¹⁸General Policies on Education, 1967-1972, p. 9.

adopted as the standard curriculum for all secondary schools. Since then, some social forces have developed which may justify a general revision of the secondary curriculum. Isidro mentions a few of these social developments in his book, Trends and Issues in Philippine Education, 1972. Among these social developments are: secondary education is no longer for a few; it has become an institution for a great mass of Filipino youth. The present general curriculum has been criticized as "too general to serve specific function."¹⁹

The demand for economic development became a pre-occupation of every administration since the inauguration of independence. This need had to be reflected in the curriculum. Some educators claimed that the general secondary curriculum did not train the students to enable them to work efficiently in agriculture, trade, and industry and could not supply the manpower for the economic needs of the Philippines. Because of these social and economic trends, the general role of secondary school had to be reinterpreted and the curriculum reorganized.

The following illustrations show the development of the secondary public school curricula from 1946 to 1978.

As noted in Chapter IV, the Secondary General Curriculum which was piloted and adopted in 1932, and which supplanted the academic curriculum in the public schools,

¹⁹Isidro, p. 79.

in the earlier period, became the standard curriculum for all the non-vocational public secondary schools until 1941. Since its introduction, the general curriculum had gained acceptance from the general public. The general curriculum enabled the students to acquire knowledge and attitudes through classroom instruction, and an appreciation and understanding of his capabilities through exploration and guidance. The Conference on Secondary Education in 1939 and the Thirty-Sixth Annual Convention of Division Superintendents in 1940 endorsed it.

After the war (1941-1945), the general curriculum was adopted as the standard curriculum for all public high schools, until the General Secondary Curriculum of 1954 replaced it.

The general secondary curriculum was the standard curriculum of the public high schools in the Philippines. It replaced the academic curriculum in the secondary schools except the rural high, agricultural, trade, fishery, and secondary normal schools.

The 1954 general secondary curriculum is shown in the following table:²⁰

²⁰Florencio Frenoza and Canuto Casim, Essentials of Philippine Educational System (Manila: Abiva Publishing House, Inc., 1964), p.p. 202-204.

TABLE 11

SECONDARY PUBLIC SCHOOL CURRICULUM FROM 1954

First Year	Min.	Wk.	Second Year	Min.	Wk.
Grammar and Composition	40	1	Grammar and Composition	40	1
Reading	40	1	Reading	40	1
General Science	40	1	General Mathematics	40	1
World History	40	1	U.S. History	40	1
Philipino Language	40	1	Philipino Language	40	1
Exploratory Vocational Courses for Boys-Home Economics for Girls	40	1	Vocational for Boys- Home Economics for Girls	40	1
Physical Education and Health	40	1	Physical Education		
Spanish I	40	1	and Health	40	1
			Spanish II	40	1
Third Year	Min.	Wk.	Fourth Year	Min.	Wk.
Literature and Composition	40	1	Literature and Composi- tion	40	1
Advanced Arithmetic	40	1	Economics	40	1
Biology	40	1	Philippine History and Government	40	1
Philipino Language	40	1	Vocational Education for Boys-Home Econo- mics for Girls	40	1
Vocational Education for Boys- Home Economics for Girls	40	1	Physical Education and Health and Prepara- tory Military for Boys, Physical Educa- tion for Girls		
Physical Education and Health and Preparatory Military for Boys, Physical Education for Girls			Spanish IV		
Spanish II					

TABLE 12

THE PROGRAM OF STUDIES IN HOME ECONOMICS FOR GIRLS WERE:²¹

First Year	Min.	Wk.	Second Year	Min.	Wk.
Foods I	80	2	Foods II	80	1
Home and Family I	40	1	Clothing and Textile II	80	1
Clothing and Textiles I	80	1	Nutrition I	40	1
Handicrafts	80	1	Art Appreciation	40	1
Third Year	Min.	Wk.	Fourth Year	Min.	Wk.
<u>(First Semester)</u>			<u>(First Semester)</u>		
Nutrition II	80	2	Home and Family	40	5
and one of the following:			<u>(Second Semester)</u>		
1) Foods III	80	3	Commercial Goal		
2) Clothing and Textiles III	80	3	one of the following:		
3) Elective subject	80	3	1) Advanced Foods-food		
<u>(Second Semester)</u>			service, tea room	80	3
Child Care	40	5	2) Advanced Clothing-		
Elective subject	80	3	costume designing	80	3
			Elective subject	80	3

²¹Ibid., p.p. 204-205.

In the first and second years, the vocational course for boys were exploratory in character. In the first year the students selected six vocational exploratory courses from among the following: agronomy, horticulture, poultry and swine, retail merchandising, automotive, wood-working, general and metal work and electricity. The student spent six weeks for each of the exploratory courses he selected. In the second year he chose four courses, and spent ten weeks in each course; in the third year he selected two, one for each semester. In the fourth year the student chose one on which he spent the entire year studying it.

In 1954, the Alumni Association of the University of the East, in the Philippines donated the sum of ₱10,000.00, to the President of the Philippines, Ramon Magsaysay, for the purpose of financing a study of the Philippine education and how it may be improved by a greater offering of the courses offered under the general education.²² The thought behind the study was a favorable expansion of the general education in school and college curriculum which would serve as the binding of national culture and the foundation of the vocations and professions.

A committee called the Magsaysay Committee was organized. It has been discussed in Chapter IV, that the

²²Report of Magsaysay Committee Toward the General Education of the Philippines, p. xii.

academic curriculum provided the basis of what at that time might be called general education. In actual results, however, general education partook of the nature of a vocational course because a large number of students sought to enroll in it to prepare themselves for jobs in business and government offices. At the beginning, the general curriculum was widely accepted by the people, because social and economic opportunities became abundant, however, only a small percentage went to high school to prepare for college.

The question why so few students prepared themselves for college education, then, was a great concern of the Committee. So they first evaluated the curriculum and recognized its defects:

From the standpoint of vocational preparation, the vocational courses in this curriculum are considered too inadequate to turn out men and women who could earn their living after graduation. There are too many rigid requirements which prevents the curriculum from meeting the needs of the communities and enriching the life of the students.²³

The Committee, upon examining the curriculum, criticized it with regard to the preparation of the students for college work. The high school curriculum required too many courses for the average students in the high school, and that the secondary school was trying to accomplish too much within a limited time. The courses did not have the necessary

²³Ibid., p. 152.

continuity to provide the students with opportunities for normal growth in the subjects.

In addition to the criticism on the curriculum for the general secondary schools, the Committee were highly critical of the inadequate facilities, the absence of guidance counselors to advise students on the necessary courses, and that the method of teaching were not conducive to favorable learning.

The committee recommended a reorganization of the general secondary education in that the effectiveness of general education can be enhanced by a revision of the curriculum, an improvement in the methods of teaching, an increase of educational facilities and an improvement of administrative and supervisory measures.

In the 47th annual convention of the school superintendents of the Philippines in Baguio City, from April 30 to May 12, 1956, the deficiencies of the general secondary curriculum were discussed and reported by the Coordinating Committee of the Convention. They reported the following were the deficiencies of the general secondary curriculum at that time.

1. There are still secondary schools using textbooks that are obsolete and too difficult for secondary level.
2. Many references in certain vocational courses, particularly in agriculture, are too technical and too difficult for students in the secondary schools.

3. The library and laboratory facilities in all secondary schools are inadequate. Also, the facilities in all secondary vocational and home economics courses are insufficient.
4. The secondary curriculum is too heavy in its language requirements. Aside from English and the Filipino Language, Spanish is also prescribed wherever certain facilities could be availed of.
5. High school graduates who continued their studies in college have been observed to have an inadequate preparation for college work, and similarly, those who do not go to college do not seem to be well prepared for life.²⁴

From the foregoing reports of the two committees, namely: the Magsaysay Committee on the General Education in the Philippines and the Coordinating Committee of the 47th Annual Convention of School Superintendents, a proposal for the reorganization of the secondary education was in order.

In 1957, the 2-2 Plan Curriculum replaced the general secondary school curriculum by the Department Order No. 1, S., for the general high schools for the Philippines.²⁵ This plan was experimented in four selected schools, Bayambang, Davao, Leyte, and the college preparation of the U.P. Preparatory High School. The main characteristics of the 2-2 Plan were: a common preparation for all students in the first two years, to provide general education for all in academic and vocational subjects. The curriculum offers

²⁴General Policies on Education, 1967-1972, p.p. 9-10.

²⁵Isidro, p.p. 75-76. See also Frenoza and Casim, p.p. 206-208.

academic subjects and practical art courses for boys or home economics for girls. The subjects were English, general mathematics, general sciences, health, and physical education. Guidance was an integral part of the school program.

In the third and fourth years, differentiation in the field of study occurred. The students were guided to select their field of study from the following: industrial arts, agricultural arts, business arts, home economics, and sciences. Although the students took practically the same number of courses, specialization was accomplished by requiring a greater number of periods in the line of specialization. The daily schedule was arranged in a manner which permitted the student to take his academic subjects in the morning and his vocational work in the afternoon.

After some years of implementation, the ineffectiveness of the 2-2 Plan was evident. Frenozza points out some objections to the plan. He said that there was a lack of equipment and facilities, indifference of students to the vocational phase of the program, and the desire of many parents to prepare their children for white-collar jobs. There was a feeling of dissatisfaction among student, because of the too many required textbooks, and there was little emphasis on the indigenous culture.

In order to improve the secondary education, the Board of the National Education Technical Committee on Secondary Education endorsed the 4-1 Plan, 1964.²⁶ The Committee on Administrative Policy created by the Board on March 4, 1968, redefined the broad and basic policies on secondary education and submitted proposed revisions on secondary education program. This was called the 3-2 Plan. Both 4-1 Plan and 3-2 Plan are discussed in detail, under the sub-title Reorganization of the Philippine Public Secondary School System, page 168.²⁷ The 3-2 Curriculum Plan survived the 4-1 Plan as recommended by the Committee on Administrative Policy because of the following reasons: economically, the 3-2 Plan had greater justification than the shorter 4-year secondary education; four years of secondary education under the 4-1 Plan was wasteful in money, time and effort on the part of many students. After four years of education, students were not prepared to become economically independent, and were not vocationally competent. Academically, many of the students were not prepared for higher education. Many students took six to seven years to finish courses which normally required four years to complete. It was, therefore, clear that the 3-2 Plan provided greater opportunities for general education.²⁸

²⁶General Policies on Education, 1967-1972, p. 10.

²⁷See page 171 for details about the 4-1 Plan.

²⁸Report of the Magsaysay Committee, p.p. 170-171.

The 3-2 Plan was not implemented long enough, although endorsed by the Magsaysay Committee on General Education. The new concept of the 2-2 Plan, a variation of the old 2-2 Plan, as proposed by the Technical Committee on Secondary Curricula was approved by the Board of National Education on September 15, 1971.²⁹ The Committee believed that the 2-2 Plan would improve the quality of high school graduates. It was also expected that the new secondary school curriculum would give a better vocational training for those who would stop schooling after graduation, and more thorough academic preparation to those who would go to college. The 2-2 Plan of secondary education provided for a break at the end of the second year and permitted the students to broaden their interest and aptitudes in either vocational courses or academic fields with the beginning of the third year.³⁰ The first two years were designed to offer general education for all and provided common learnings in academic and vocational subjects. The vocational subjects in this stage were exploratory courses whose aims were to discover the students; aptitude and interests. The courses in sciences, mathematics, English, Philipino and social studies were prescribed. Beginning with the third year educational and

²⁹General Policies on Education, 1967-1972, p.p. 10-11. See also Isidro's Trends and Issues in the Philippine Education, p.p. 75-76.

³⁰General Policies on Education, 1973-1974, p. 6.

vocational guidance was proved. The students were expected to follow different courses: academic studies for those who aspired to go on to college, and vocational courses for those aspiring to get training for earning a living. In the fourth year, the students continued to work on their specialization.

The 2-2 Plan continued in force until it was replaced by a curriculum which was recommended by the Committee on Secondary Education, better known as Task Force III. In August, 1972, the National Board of Education created Task Force III, in order to study and revised the 2-2 Plan curriculum for the general secondary school, so that it might be more responsive to the needs of the new society.³¹

Dr. Arturo M. Guerrero headed the Task Force III Committee. The members were representatives from the secondary education level of the Bureau of Vocational Education, the Bureau of Public Schools, the Bureau of Private Schools, and the College of Education of the University of the Philippines, public schools of the Manila, and private education associations. After a year of study by the Task Force Committee, on the revision of the 2-2 Plan, they submitted to the Board a proposed secondary curriculum which was approved by the latter and which was called "Revised Secondary Education Program, 1973."³²

³¹Ibid., p. 7.

³²General Policies on Education, 1973-1974, p. 6.

After the approval by the National Board of Education, the Revised Secondary Education Program was made official by an Order from the Secretary of Education and Culture, on May 20, 1973. The same Order included a plan which would bring the revised program to full implementation by 1976-1977.³³ The Revised Secondary Curriculum for all high schools is shown on Table 13.

The curriculum is for a Four-Year High School (Revised Secondary Curriculum).³⁴

*The teaching of the New Constitution shall be integrated into Philippine History and Government.

*Series of vocational subjects to choose from which will give students sufficient training for initial gainful employment and/or preparation for the post secondary technical institutes. There should be as many series or sequences of vocational courses (agriculture, fishing, etc.) which the community demands and which the school can offer.

^aIf elective is Practical Arts and Shop or Field Work, it should be 1 unit for 300 minutes a week or 1 hour a day for 5 days a week. If elective is academic, it should be 1 unit for 180 minutes a week or 1 hour a day for 3 days a week.

^bIf elective is academic (2 units) it should be 2 separate subjects of 180 minutes each, 1 hour, 3 days a week or 1 1/2 hours, 2 days a week. If elective is vocational it should be 2 units for 600 minutes a week or 2 hours a day, 5 days for 2 weeks.

Youth Development Training (I-III) comprises Scouting, Physical Education, and Health Education Programs for the First, Second, and Third Year students of high schools, with Scouting taken two days a week. Physical Education twice a week and Health, once a week

³³Ibid., p. 31.

³⁴Ibid., p. 32.

TABLE 13

REVISED SECONDARY CURRICULUM 1973-1974

	<u>1st Year</u>		<u>2nd Year</u>		<u>3rd Year</u>		<u>4th Year</u>	
	Units	Minutes Per Wk.	Units	Minutes Per Wk.	Units	Minutes Per Wk.	Units	Minutes Per Wk.
Comm. Arts (Eng.)	2	300	1	180	1	180	1	180
Comm. Arts (Pil.)	1	180	1	180	1	180	1	180
Social Studies	1	180	1	180 ^x	1	180	1	180
Science	1	180	1	180	2	300	2	300
Mathematics	1	180	1	180	1	180	1	180
Practical Arts/ Vocational Course*	1	300	1	300	1	300	1	300
Elective (Academic/ Vocational)	1	1	1	180/300 ^a	2	360/600 ^b	2	360/600
Youth Dev. Training (I-II)	1	300	1	300	1	300	1	300
Citizen Army Training (IV)								

Citizen Army Training I (IV) for all fourth year students, boys and girls, is a course intended to provide basic citizen army training taken two days a week, P.E. and Health have the same time allotment as in the first three years.

Time Allotment of subjects:

300 minutes - 60 minutes a day, 5 days a week
 180 minutes - 60 minutes a day, 3 days a week or
 90 minutes a day, 2 days a week
 360 minutes - 180/180 - 2 separate subjects
 600 minutes - 120 minutes (2 hours) a day, 5
 days a week

Note: The academic unit in the secondary schools will be measured by a full hour, that is, a single period one unit subject meets three hours or 180 minutes a week throughout the year, while a double-period subject, 60 minutes a day for five days a week throughout the year. Other adjustments in scheduling may be experimented on by schools on the basis of the circumstances in individual schools and as long as the time requirements per week are complied with. Any departure in scheduling the time allotment to fit individual types of school shall have prior approval of the Secretary of Education.

The Revised Secondary School Curriculum of 1973, Department Order No. 20, prescribed a secondary curriculum geared to the national development of the Philippines with the basic changes and revisions in the approach used in teaching some courses. Educational expectations in secondary education for the 1980's are outlined in a paper on Philippine Education in the 80's. Among these are:

1. It is expected that in 1970-80, materials on human rights will be prepared in four curriculum levels in the high schools.
2. The staff training program which started in the summer of 1979, at the Pangasinan State University under the Civil Service Commission and the Ministry of Education and Culture will continue in 12 other

regions. If this is carried out, it is expected that the result of the revised secondary education will be felt.

3. With the scientific approach to teaching, the younger generations will be more objective and open-minded and would reach sound and independent decisions.
4. Curriculum materials will be more varied and interesting to meet the maturity and interest levels of the learners. More reading materials will be written in Filipino.
5. Practical Arts classes shall be tailored to the needs of industry and rural development.³⁵

In the 1980's more barrio high schools and barangay high schools shall have been developed to accommodate adults and out-of-school youth for the purpose of training them for work skills needed to produce articles from the raw materials found in their community.³⁶

Integration of government thrusts was the approach in educating the public to contribute to the development of national goals.³⁷

Enrollment

Enrollment in both the public and the private schools has always been rising ever since the early days of the American rule. In fact, one of the recurring problems faced

³⁵Paper prepared by the Staff of the Ministry of Education of the Philippines, Philippine Education in the 80's (Manila: The Ministry of Education and Culture, June 1978), p.p. 1-2.

³⁶Ibid., p. 3

³⁷Ibid., p. 3

by the public school administrators is the so-called "annual crisis." Every year more children apply for enrollment than what the schools could accommodate. The 1970 administration tried to solve the problem by providing funds for extension classes for high school students and adults. For the school year 1949-1959, ten thousand four hundred fifty-five emergency classes were organized.³⁸

School attendance as well as school enrollment is not a problem in the Philippine schools. Parents cooperate very closely with the school authorities in this matter. Interest in education in general by both the parents and children is another factor which explains this condition.³⁹

Pupils and students are required to attend school everyday. They should be present in order to receive a grade in recitations or class meeting in all subjects they are enrolled in. It is interesting to note that in the primary grades where there is a compulsory school attendance law, the names of the pupils who leave school, together with those of their parents are reported to the chief of police of the town or to the *teniente del barrio*, (rural chief). A pupil who had been absent for ten consecutive days is considered as having left the school.⁴⁰

³⁸Frenoza and Casim, p.p. 374-376.

³⁹*Ibid.*, p.p. 377-378.

⁴⁰*Ibid.*

The following table illustrates the enrollment trends in the public school during the American regime. This table also shows that enrollment has been rising every since the early period of the Philippine secondary school system, and has been coeducational, beginning in 1903. For enrollment in the Public Secondary Schools 1903-1929 see Table 14.⁴¹

TABLE 14

ENROLLMENT IN THE PUBLIC SECONDARY SCHOOL 1903-1929

Year	Annual Enrollment
1903	450
1908	1,324
1913	4,753
1918	15,368
1919	15,476
1920	17,355
1921	23,432
1922	31,511
1923	39,184
1924	47,419
1925	53,081
1926	57,367
1927	62,315
1928	68,635
1929	74,463

1930 - 1945 no data available

The growth of enrollment of secondary education in the public school from 1946 to 1978 can be seen in Table 15. There was a slight decrease in enrollment in 1955-1956 and

⁴¹Encarnacion Alzona, Education in the Philippines (Manila: University of the Philippine Press, 1932), p. 240.

in 1971-1972 as a result of the incompleteness of the data gathered those years. The steady increase of enrollment in this level may be partly attributed to the growing concern of parents for the preparation of college education of their children and preparation for professional and technical careers.

TABLE 15
ENROLLMENT TRENDS OF THE SECONDARY PUBLIC SCHOOLS
FROM 1946-1978

Year	Annual Enrollment
1946-1947	127,804
1950-1951	269,052
1953-1954	332,933
1954-1955	372,529
1955-1956	361,375 ⁴²
1956 - 1963 no data available	
1964-1965	394,084
1967-1968	552,983
1968-1969	515,387
1969-1970	566,013
1970-1971	643,927
1971-1972	607,492
1972-1973	859,027 ^b
1973-1974	913,410 ^b
1974-1975	970,798 ^b
1975-1976	1,061,731
1976-1977	1,205,434
1977-1978	1,319,898
1978-1979	1,491,015 ⁴³

^bindicates approximate number only

⁴²Yearbook of Philippine Statistics, 1946, Enrollment in the Public Schools (Manila: Bureau of Printing, 1947), p. 21.

⁴³Ministry of Education and Culture Statistical Bulletin, 1979, Public Secondary Enrollment (National) (Manila: MEC Planning Service, 1979), p. 9. See Philippine Yearbook 1977, p. 234.

Evaluation

There had been a persistent clamor for reform and improvement in the educational system even before the Philippines became independent of the United States. Educators and laymen alike had defined the problems of the school program and suggested their solutions. Everyone seemed to know what was wrong with the educational system and still little had been done to help solve the problem. Secondary education was and still is beset by many problems. One of its serious problems is the lack of stable and adequate financial support. Another problem is the fact that students have been trained for jobs that do not exist, on the other hand, secondary education can not harness the manpower for the country's economic needs.⁴⁴ To remedy the defects: a re-examination of the policy regarding the establishment of secondary schools was necessary, and a revision of the general secondary curriculum was needed.

Several surveys of the Philippine educational system or a segment of it have already been made during the American rule. The following surveys for the secondary education have been undertaken after the Philippines became independent.

After World War II a Congressional Committee on Education under the leadership of the then Congressman Juan Borra

⁴⁴ Isidro, p.p. 78-79.

and Senator Geronima Pecson conducted a survey to adjust the school needs to the impending reconstruction of the post-war years. Among the most important proposals of the Joint Congressional Committee on Education are the following:

Secondary Education. Work experience of at least two hours each day should be required. A vocational guidance school program should be instituted. Community high schools should be provided in towns with at least one hundred students. The curriculum should provide opportunities for the practice of good citizenship instead of merely requiring students to learn facts and principles. The secondary schools should teach the students the fine art of living.

Vocational Education. The academic high schools should be abolished. The vocational schools should be given greater autonomy to determine the kind of work experience to be given to the students so that those activities that may be useful to the community may be provided by the school.⁴⁵

In 1949 another survey was conducted under the auspices of UNESCO. The UNESCO Consultative Mission was loaned to the Philippine government by the United National Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization. The UNESCO Mission, together with their consultants visited both public and private schools of the country, observed and conferred with educators and teachers. The general conclusions and recommendations of the UNESCO Mission are as follows:

⁴⁵Frenoza and Casim, p. 506.

The trend in public secondary schools away from the purely academic curriculum to the general curriculum is most encouraging. The program of six years in the elementary school and four years in the secondary school does not seem adequate for a common school period. It should be extended to 12 grades with compulsory attendance in the elementary grades and free schooling for those who wanted to go to secondary schools.⁴⁶

The UNESCO and the Congressional Committee both recommended further experimentation as a means to determine the national policy relating to the language questions of the Philippines. These were the difficulties created by the use of a foreign language (English) as a medium of instruction in the school and of the National Language, which was so unfamiliar to all but the Tagalog-speaking students. These have confronted the educators with a most perplexing problem. The solution suggested was to have a vigorous research program about the language to be used for instruction.

There was a common agreement between the two groups that the secondary school should provide opportunities for training in productive work and meet the country's need for greater economic development. They urged greater emphasis on vocational guidance.

In 1959, another survey of the public school system was conducted under the auspices of the National Economic

⁴⁶Ibid., p. 508.

Council, of the Philippines. The survey team was composed of six American educators, which was headed by Dr. J. Chester Swanson, Professor of Education of the University of California, with Filipino educators counterpart chaired by Dr. Vitaliano Bernardino, Assistant Director of the Bureau of Public Schools.⁴⁷

The Swanson Educational Survey of 1959, as this survey team was called, pointed out several defects causing the deterioration of public education in the Philippines. The survey reported the following factors affecting the public educational system of the country. They were: overcrowding of classes and lack of books, lack of inservice training for teachers, and of plans for long-range programs of curriculum development, heavy load on teachers, language difficulties, inadequate school facilities, loss of time in various but unnecessary programs of activity.⁴⁸

Achievements in reading and arithmetic were lower than the past years, and these lower achievements were attributed by the Reports to fewer textbooks, and larger classes.

The recommendations of the Survey Team were: (1) furnish more textbooks, better libraries, and adequate instructional materials, (2) the need to coordinate with the courses offered by the general high schools and the vocational schools,

⁴⁷Isidro, p. 99.

⁴⁸Ibid., p.p. 100-102.

(3) the curriculum of the first two years of the vocational schools which operated near the general high schools should be offered as part of the first two years covered under the general education in the 2-2 Plan high schools, (4) expand the enrollment of the secondary schools, and reduce tuition fees by providing more stable financing, (5) and revision of the curriculum of vocational training.⁴⁹

Following the Swanson Report of 1959 was the National Economic Council Survey of the Public Schools in the Philippines.⁵⁰ The major recommendations of the Committee for the improvement of the quality of education were the following: (1) furnish more instructional materials, (2) improve the supervision of the program of instruction, (3) and provide better financing for schools.

A National government committee on education reform urged the general revamping of the Philippine educational system. This was the Sinco Report, which was directed by Dr. Vincente Sinco, president of the University of the Philippines. It was composed of curriculum experts of the Department of Education.⁵¹

⁴⁹Ibid., p. 101.

⁵⁰Frenoza and Casim, p. 513.

⁵¹Ibid.

The Committee submitted the following recommendation to the Board of National Education based on the guiding principles of flexibility and improvement of the educational system without requiring enormous additional funds. This could be done by decreasing the curricular requirements to the essentials and improving the quality of curriculum content and instructional materials and methods.

A new organizational set up is proposed for the secondary school. Instead of the present four-year secondary education, there should be instituted a secondary curriculum with a common three-year basic secondary school followed by alternative two-year collegiate secondary or vocational secondary schools. The basic secondary school of three years will provide a curriculum of general education for two purposes: (a) to provide a terminal education for those who cannot continue their studies; and (b) to serve as a foundation for higher courses. The two-year collegiate secondary school will prepare students for work in college and serve to bridge a gap between the high school and the collegiate course. The two-year vocational course will provide training for purposes of field specializations since the vocational secondary school aims at developing craftsmen and junior technicians.⁵²

The Committee believed that the curriculum must be responsive to the needs of the times and the students. For the students who intended to pursue education above the secondary level it recommended differentiated curricula

⁵² Juan Manuel, Source Book in Philippine Education (Quezon City: Alemar-Phoenix Publishing House, 1973), p.p. 212-213. See also: Isidro's Trends and Issues in Philippine Education, p.p. 102-103, and Frenoza and Casim's Essentials of the Philippine Educational System, p.p. 517-521. A complete report of the Sinco Committee is shown in Appendix B.

after the students have finished a common general education curriculum in the basic secondary school. The basic secondary school was terminal for those who could not pursue further schooling; however, for those who desired to continue their schooling, the common school served as a basis for the vocational secondary education of the technically inclined, or as the foundation for higher academic secondary education by the academically inclined in the collegiate secondary school.

According to Professor Antonio Isidro, when the evaluation of the school system is by way of the consideration of its relation to the social order, it may be called a social appraisal. This kind of social evaluation, he says, uses the historical-social approach and is based on how much the school system contributed to the welfare of the society which it seeks to serve. It is believed that a social appraisal is philosophical in nature and its validity rests on the sound judgement and the wide experience of the person or persons making the appraisal and on their sources.⁵³

It is apparent from all the reports of the different Survey Committees on the Philippine educational system over the last fifty years that there were and still are at present critical problems affecting education in the Philippines. However, the surveys failed to mention the accomplishments

⁵³Frenoza and Casim, p. 523.

of the Philippine educational system. A comprehensive list of accomplishments of the Philippine school system was given by Professor Antonio Isidro of the College of Education, University of the Philippines in an article in the Philippine Journal of Education.

1. Strengthening our national solidarity. The unity of our people has been strengthened by the public school system through the highly centralized organization and the use of a uniform course of study for all children of the same grade. The use of English language by the upper and middle grades is a cohesive factor among the different language groups.
2. Training for the democratic way of life. The public school system has contributed a great deal in training our people in the ways of democracy. Without the schools it would have been difficult for the people to learn the elements of the democratic way of life. The concepts of the attributes of democracy such as general welfare, civil liberty, freedom of speech, the ballot, equal protection before the law, consent of the governed, majority rule, were learned in the school through the curricular and extra-curricular activities.
3. Training of leaders and development of a strong middle class. Nearly all the professionals and businessmen of today are the products of our school system. The leaders in the government and industry come from the middle class. In addition, our schools have changed the unwholesome attitude toward manual labor. Our people today have learned from our schools the idea that honest manual work is honorable.
4. Furnishing the pattern for private education. The public schools set the pattern for private education since their organization. Even the conservative private schools organized during the Spanish regime have adopted practices of the public schools as co-education, the use of English as medium of instruction, and the use of modern instructional devices and techniques.⁵⁴

⁵⁴Ibid., p. 524, as cited.

Textbooks and instructional materials

In the words of Director of the Textbook Secretariat, Pacifico N. Aprieto, "There is no doubt that the lack of good textbooks represents one of the major causes of the deterioration of the quality of learning in our public schools."⁵⁵

The lack of textbooks is a problem that had defied all attempts in the past to deal with it. This problem is familiar to students, teachers, parents and school administrators. This lack of textbooks is one of the biggest drawbacks in the Philippine educational system. The statistics show that in any one subject, there was only one book for every 10 pupils in grades 1-4; only one for every 12 pupils in grades 5-6; and only one for every 9 pupils in the secondary schools. In many urban schools the ratio is better, and worse in most rural schools.⁵⁶

The insufficient number of other academic aids for the regular classroom teacher makes the textbook absolutely indispensable. According to such an authority as Isidro "low reading ability of the pupils and a lack of reading interests among adults may have been due to the failure

⁵⁵ Pacifico N. Aprieto, The Fookien Times-Philippine Yearbook "Textbooks for the Masses" (Manila: Fookien Times Yearbook Publishing Co., Inc., 1978), p. 308.

⁵⁶ Ibid., p. 309.

of the administration to provide pupils with the necessary textbooks in their classes."⁵⁷

In response to this grave problem on textbooks, the Philippine government has embarked on a Textbook Project (1976-1981) which, as the Director of the Secretariat points out and addresses itself to both the quantity and quality aspects of the textbook problem. The Textbook Project's over-all purpose is to develop the institutional capacity for the continuous development and supply of relevant textbooks in sufficient quantity for the public schools.

On July 1, 1976, the Textbook Board Secretariat (TBS) was organized to serve as the central directing and coordinating agency for the complex process of improving textbook development. The Project is headed by Director Pacifico N. Aprieto, and the TBS is divided into an Editorial Division, a Production Division, a Manufacturing Division and a Training and Evaluation Division.

The Project is designed to develop 109 basic textbooks and teachers' manuals for the public schools for all grade levels from grades one to fourth year high school in science, mathematics, social studies, Filipino and English. The textbooks are available to students on a loan-free basis at a ratio of one book for every two students in

⁵⁷Trends and Issues in Philippine Education, p. 176.

1979.⁵⁸ Several distinctive features of the textbook development process under the Project deserve special mention. (1) For the first time the textbooks are field tested before printing the final edition, (2) the manuscripts are subjected to the scrutiny of independent editors in the TBS on the basis of consistency in style, facts and presentation, consistency in scope and sequence, continuity of the texts above and below grade levels of the text in the series, (3) and the effectiveness of textbooks is being evaluated.⁵⁹

Teacher training

The training program for the secondary school teachers in the Philippines went through successive evolutionary stages. In the early years (1911) through the School of Education of the University of the Philippines, the High School Teachers Certificate was awarded to those who completed the three-year curriculum. That was considered sufficient for the purpose of teaching in the secondary schools.⁶⁰ In 1915 one year was added to the three-year course and the degree of Bachelor of Science in Education was awarded to

⁵⁸Aprieto, p. 308.

⁵⁹Ibid., p. 309.

⁶⁰Macario Naval and Gaudencio Aquino, Administration and Supervision "Teacher Education" (Quezon City: Alemar-Phoenix Publishers, 1971), p. 111.

the graduates. Effective July 1, 1918, the School of Education was organized into a College of Education, giving it a collegiate rank. For more than four decades now the B.S.E. course has been in operation.⁶¹ The regular Bachelor of Science in Education (B.S.E.) preparation for secondary school teaching for today includes 39 semester hours in Psychology and Education spread through the eight semesters in classes meeting three hours weekly except for double periods of Practice teaching in the last semester. One required course deals with Administration and Supervision, and another with Community and Adult Education. The other courses aim primarily at preparing classroom teachers in subject matter.⁶²

After the first year, in addition to the usual basic requirements, each B.S.E. student must choose a major and a minor subject as areas for future teaching. A major usually means eight three-hour subject-matter courses and a minor, six. It is expected that the major assignment of a high school teacher will be within the major field of study, and the minor assignment within the minor field.⁶³

⁶¹Ibid., p. 112.

⁶²Arthur Carlson, The Story of the Philippine Education (Quezon City: New Day Publishers, 1978), p. 222.

⁶³Ibid., p. 93.

In the Philippines, there is a uniform requirement for teacher preparation in the teacher training institutions with regard to course requirements, student observation, and practice teaching. To be appointed as a secondary school academic teacher he or she must be a graduate of a duly recognized college of education with the Bachelor of Science in Education degree. In addition to the qualification mentioned above, all teachers must pass the civil service examination for teachers to become eligible for regular appointment. A teacher of agricultural courses in the secondary school must be a graduate of a duly recognized college of agriculture with the degree of Bachelor of Science in Agriculture or Bachelor of Agriculture, and a holder of the Certificate of Agricultural Education. He must pass the Junior or Senior (agricultural or academic) Teacher Examination in order to be eligible for regular appointment. A home economics teacher for the secondary vocational school must be a holder of the degree of Bachelor of Science in Home Economics. To qualify for regular appointment, she must pass the Junior or Senior Teacher Examination.⁶⁴

Table 16, page 209 shows the increasing number of secondary high school teachers from 1974 to 1978, in all regions

⁶⁴Philippine Yearbook, "Education" (Manila: National Economic and Development Authority and Statistics Office, 1977), p. 268.

TABLE 16

NUMBER OF GOVERNMENT SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS BY REGION⁶⁵

1974-1978

Region	S E C O N D A R Y			
	1974-75	1975-76	1976-77	1977-78
I	2,639	3,759	4,848	4,774
II	656	1,331	1,313	2,277
III	2,578	3,085	3,591	3,865
IV	10,787	12,414	4,897	4,963
NCR*	-	-	9,146	9,583
V	1,310	1,632	1,965	2,305
VI	3,708	3,187	4,198	6,065
VII	700	834	968	1,783
VIII	1,048	2,115	2,168	2,564
IX	692	826	1,077	1,482
X	1,108	1,340	1,571	1,837
XI	1,337	1,711	1,888	2,161
XII	783	949	638	954
Total	27,346	33,183	38,296	44,613

* NCR still combined with Region IV up SY 1975-77.

Source: Division and District Statistical Bulletins, SY 1976-77. Personnel Services Itemization CY 1978 MIS Form 2 Bureau of Secondary Education.

⁶⁵Ministry of Education and Culture Statistical Bulletin, 1979, Secondary School Teachers (Public) Table 13, p. 18.

in the Philippines. The very significant increase in the number of teachers in the high schools may be attributed to the very high employment and utility potentials of many courses, especially in vocational education, and the changing attitudes of students.

Administration and supervision

The Board of National Education was created under the Republic Act No. 1124, on June 16, 1954, which became the policy making body on education for the Philippines. According to this Act, it was the duty of the Board to formulate, implement, and enforce general educational objectives and policies, coordinate activities and functions of all educational institutions in the country with a view to accomplishing an integrated, nationalistic, and democracy-inspired educational system.⁶⁶

When the Americans came and organized the Philippine public school system in 1902, they found the Islands were not prepared for the educational structures that they were attempting to transplant to the country from America. While they had been accustomed to a decentralized administration as represented in the different state and local boards, they realized that conditions were different from those in the United States. Hence, they had no choice but to establish

⁶⁶Naval and Aquino, p. 26.

an administrative machinery adapted to the customs and traditions of the Filipino people. The number of Filipinos who had been educated in the Spanish normal school were very few and were not trained to administer the educational programs. The adoption of English as a medium of instruction and the introduction of American techniques created a condition that no Filipinos but only American educators could administer. Thus, the new establishment of public education had to have a very centralized administration. The entire system had to be run and administered by one General Superintendent called the Director of Education, and now the Secretary of Education and Culture.⁶⁷

Under the Philippine educational system, school administration and supervision are given considerable attention and emphasis. Administration is considered to be a service organization which brings together the most favorable conditions possible, competent teachers, educative materials and equipment, and the children for more effective teaching. In doing this, it is expected to provide not only leadership but also evaluation and appraisal in the task of achieving the ends of education and pursuing educational improvement. Administration also bridges the gap between broad policy and the actual teaching process.⁶⁸

⁶⁷Isidro, p. 27.

⁶⁸Naval and Aquino, p. 50.

Supervision is an important function of the division superintendent, the supervisor, and the principal. This is clearly shown in certain provisions of the Service Manual of the Bureau of the Philippine Public Schools which states that, although there is a multitude of administrative details that must be attended to, the school officials referred to should not fail in the work involved in the supervision of classroom instruction.⁶⁹ There is a feeling on the part of knowledgeable authorities that supervision in the Philippine public school system has plenty of room for improvement. In fact the poor quality of education in some localities is attributed in part to poor and substandard supervision. This has been a problem that educational leadership in the Islands recognized and had taken constructive steps to remedy from time to time. The evidence of such constructive steps was the inclusion of a provision for up-grading of administration and supervision in the Five-Year Goals of the Bureau of Public Schools (1966-1971).

In the Philippine school system the division superintendent and the district supervisor give more time to administration while division and subject supervisors attend more to supervision. The principal teacher, on the other hand, attends to both administration and supervision.⁷⁰

⁶⁹Service Manual, rev. ed. (Manila: Bureau of Public Schools, 1969), p. 51.

⁷⁰Naval and Aquino, p. 51.

A significant finding of the Swanson Committee, which made a survey of the public schools in the Philippines during the school year 1959-1960 showed the following:

The principal-teacher ratio has increased from 20 in 1926 to 47 in 1958. It is apparent that the principal's load has increased considerably. Since he is both a school administrator and a supervisor of instruction, he must attend to both administrative details and supervisory work. It can be seen then that the administrative and supervisory responsibilities of the principal have expanded. If he is to perform his major function of supervision, he should budget his time and effort so that the supervision process is not neglected.⁷¹

The secondary public school principal in the Philippines is responsible for the administrative and supervisory work of the secondary public school. The general secondary school principal must be a graduate from a recognized college with a B.S.E. degree, or a B.A. in Education degree and with a major in the field offered in the secondary curriculum, with at least 18 semester credits in education. He must have had at least three years of successful teaching experience in the secondary school with an above average efficiency rating.⁷² The trade school principal must be a graduate of the teachers' curriculum of a national school of arts and trades with at least four years experience in a trade school. He must have

⁷¹Ibid., p. 52., as cited.

⁷²There is no available document on the up-dated qualifications of 1970 to 1978 secondary principals. Available document was taken from Frenoza's Philippine Educational System, 1964, p.p. 319-321.

the Junior or the Senior Teacher of Arts and Trades Civil Service eligibility. The principal of the agricultural or rural high school must be a graduate of the College of Agriculture of the University of the Philippines, or a duly recognized private college of agriculture, and should have at least three years of teaching experience in agricultural or rural high school. In addition, he should have the Teacher of Agriculture Civil Service eligibility.⁷³

The principal, besides running a school, must keep up not only with desirable instructional trends, but also with new ideas in the field of supervision, administration and research.

Financing of the school

Education in the Philippines is regarded as the function of the State. The government is required by Constitutional mandate to maintain a complete and adequate system of education and to provide at least free primary instruction. The National Government, therefore, supports all primary classes in all municipalities and cities. Since 1941, it also supports the intermediate classes in all municipalities and in addition, it gives also a lump sum annually to each city and province as an aid in maintaining the intermediate

⁷³Ibid., p. 320.

and secondary classes in the city and the secondary classes in the province.⁷⁴

The financial support of public high schools is derived from tuition fees, donation from parent-teacher associations and private individuals, and aid from local and national governments. The main source of funds, however, for the operation of a big number of high schools comes from the tuition fees paid by the students.

Other sources of secondary school funding come from the following: In 1968 Congress passed the Republic Act No. 5447 known as the Special Education Fund Act.⁷⁵ This fund is derived from the additional tax of one percent of the assessed value of real estate property and a portion of the taxes on Virginia type cigarettes on imported leaf tobacco. This fund is utilized, among others, for the payment and purchase, and upkeep of teaching materials. Voluntary contributions and donations from civic organizations, in addition to private individuals, constitute other sources of funding, but these are very unstable and can not be relied upon. Some municipalities help the provincial high school located in their territory by transferring part of their general fund to the provincial school fund. Some municipalities

⁷⁴Ibid., p. 407. See also Concepcion Aquila's, Educational Legislation "Constitutional Precepts on Education," p. 79.

⁷⁵Ibid., p. 408.

maintain their high schools by creating a special school fund and by charging fees.

Matriculation fee in an amount of ₱2.00 is authorized by the President of the Philippines, for each pupil enrolled in the general high schools. Sixty percent of the total amount collected by the school from the matriculation fee goes to the library fund of the school and forty percent to the athletic fund.

The Parent-Teacher Association (PTA) helps in the financing of the regular high schools by donating money, material, or labor for the needs and improvement of the schools. The funds are raised through benefit shows, lotteries and others are sponsored by the PTA.

Tuition fees are charged by all high schools except those located in the City of Manila, Quezon City, and Iloilo City, where secondary school education is free. The fees vary from school to school, however, and it is largely dependent upon the financial capacity of the local government supporting it. Generally tuition fees in the nationally-supported schools are lower, ranging from 40 pesos to 80 pesos. Rates in locally-supported high schools range from 80 pesos to 130 pesos. Table 17 shows that on the average, 60 percent of the total current expenditures of the secondary schools (1965-1969) supported by the provincial government are derived from tuition fees.

TABLE 17

AMOUNT AND PERCENT OF THE TOTAL BUDGET FOR THE
SECONDARY EDUCATION DERIVED FROM TUITION FEES,
FISCAL YEAR 1965-1969⁷⁶

Fiscal Year	Total Budget	Amount Tuition Fees	Percent
1965	₱18,242,960	₱12,065,882	66.24
1966	21,245,837	12,723,488	59.88
1967	20,589,536	12,866,538	62.49
1968	23,447,233	12,763,934	54.43
1969	22,991,190	12,013,186	56.60
Five-Year Average			59.93

Source: General Auditing Office Report to the President of the Philippines, Fiscal Year 1965-1969.

⁷⁶ Leopoldo Cruz, and Rene R. Calado, Financing Secondary School, "Document Resume," (Paris: IIER Publishing), p.p. 19-20.

The following table indicates the financial aid given to the provincial, municipal and city high school, by the National Government.

TABLE 18

AID GIVEN BY THE NATIONAL GOVERNMENT TO PROVINCIAL,
MUNICIPAL AND CITY HIGH SCHOOLS, FISCAL YEARS,
1965-1966 to 1970-1971⁷⁷

Fiscal Year	National Appropriation During the Past Five Years
1965-66	₱9,900,000.00
1966-67	4,526,157.00
1967-68	4,856,220.00
1968-69	4,856,220.00
1969-70	8,033,000.00
1970-71	7,812,785.00

Source: Finance Division, Bureau of Public Schools

Release per high school is dependent upon the size of enrollment. The law (Republic Act No. 3478) authorizes an annual national aid of ₱10,000,000.00 to public secondary schools. The whole amount, however, is not released yearly due to lack of available funds.

The national aid is primarily intended for salary adjustments of teachers and secondary school personnel.⁷⁸

⁷⁷ Ibid., p. 20.

⁷⁸ Naval and Aquino, p. 74.

Appropriations for the general high school given by the National Government are shown on Table 19 for 1965 to 1971.⁷⁹

TABLE 19

Fiscal Year	Appropriation for General Secondary Schools
1965-1966	₱11,412,940.00
1966-1967	7,542,225.00
1967-1968	7,542,225.00
1968-1969	7,542,225.00
1969-1970	11,478,000.00
1970-1971	19,757,785.00

Source: Finance Division, Bureau of Public Schools.

Any savings on the appropriations may be utilized to the provisions of Section 7-1 (4) of Commonwealth Act No. 246 as amended.

The trend in educational support in the Philippines as it is in the United States is very commendable. From the beginning, the Philippine Congress has consistently given one third of the entire budget of the country to education, and from year to year the appropriations has constantly increased up to the maximum allowed by the limited assets of the National Government. However, Table 19 shows inconsistency of appropriations for the general secondary schools for

⁷⁹Cruz and Calado, p. 24.

1965-71, and lack of revenues collected could have been the cause.

It is interesting to observe the budget appropriations of the secondary education in the Philippines for the fiscal year of 1979. The following Table 20 indicates the National Aid to National and Local Schools, for 12 different regions.⁸⁰

TABLE 20

Region	S E C O N D A R Y E D U C A T I O N	
	National School	Local School
I	₱40,393,000.00	₱12,345,497.00
II	30,258,000.00	3,960,180.00
III	15,190,000.00	12,124,000.00
IV	32,639,000.00	15,911,128.00
V	19,925,000.00	6,006,965.00
VI	36,170,000.00	13,843,988.00
VII	13,893,000.00	4,349,825.00
VIII	32,286,000.00	6,848,131.00
IX	15,511,000.00	2,928,072.00
X	19,449,000.00	6,520,592.00
XI	11,951,000.00	6,060,118.00
XII	10,007,000.00	3,857,338.00
Total	₱281,288,000.00	₱95,716,827.00

Source: General Appropriations Act, 1979. Batas Pambansa Bilang 1; and Advice of Allotment CY 1979.

⁸⁰ Ministry of Education and Culture Statistical Bulletin, 1979, p. 63.

Cesar Virata, Minister of Finance of the Philippines, explains the rationale behind and the mechanics of the national government's regionalization program. According to him, the regionalization policy is a response to the unevenness in regional development, the built-in inefficiencies of centralized administration, and certain geographical considerations, the government divided the country into 13 regions (12 regions have budget appropriations only).⁸¹

On the collegiate level, 786,103 students were enrolled for 1973-74 one of the highest rates in the Third World. A total of 10.5 million Filipinos over 30 percent of the population, received formal schooling. The Philippines' literacy rate of 85.7 percent is among the highest in Asia and compares favorably with those of richer countries.⁸²

The massive enrollment of students in all levels of education has created a balance between the output of yearly graduates and the manpower requirements of the Philippine economy, and undoubtedly accelerates the Philippine socio-economic development. This has a tremendous impact on the country's national economy and stability in giving national aid to the secondary schools and other levels of education.

⁸¹Ibid.

⁸²The Philippines, Department of Public Information, Education (Manila: Bureau of National Foreign Information, 1976), p. 90.

New approaches to secondary education

One of the new thrusts in the Philippine secondary education provides for the adoption and implementation of a work-oriented curriculum. At the same time, the necessity of having work experience as part of the general fundamental education of young citizens is directly geared to national economic development goals, with work education being considered as a vital factor in the socio-economic development of the Philippines.⁸³

Philippine education is undergoing tremendous changes in its programs, approaches, and techniques. Since the imposition of Martial Law in 1972, and the promulgation of Presidential Decree No. 6-A, there has been greater emphasis on educational programs that seek to transform the Filipino into a productive and versatile citizen. The issuance of the decree underscores the felt need of the Philippines for a more responsive educational program relevant to national development. The work-oriented education is one innovative answer to this need.

The concept of the work-oriented education according to Dr. Roberto De Los Reyes is "that all educational goals are based on national development goals and in the present

⁸³ Association of Elementary and Secondary High School Principals Handbook on the Work-Oriented Curriculum Secondary Level, 1973 (Manila: GIG Enterprises & Co., Inc., 1973), p. 1.

Philippine society, national development goals are spelled out in terms of social and economic goals."⁸⁴ An example of the work-oriented program is the barrio high school. The barrio high school is a recent development in the field of secondary education. The founder and moving spirit of the barrio high school was Dr. Pedro Orata, dean and Philippine educator, who was a staff member of UNESCO in Paris.

The barrio high school is organized through the cooperative effort of the people of the community, who have a keen desire to provide higher educational opportunities in the rural area. Operating under the supervision of the principal of the high school (of which it is a branch) and other officials of the Bureau of Public Schools, the barrio high school opens generally with one or two curriculum years. The Division Superintendent of Schools selects the textbooks and appoints the teachers. Classes are held in existing barrio or rural areas during the period when elementary classes are not in session - early in the morning, about midday and late afternoon.

The curriculum provides for vocational courses and home projects, general science, Filipino, arithmetic, physical education, reading and composition, Philippine community life and other courses required in the public high

⁸⁴Dr. De Los Reyes is Vice-Dean of L.C. Graduate School and concurrently Acting Dean of the College of Industrial and Manpower Technology of Luzon Colleges.

school. Science courses requiring laboratory work are scheduled on Saturdays or during summer in schools where the equipment is available. Tuition fees are collected and the budget is approved and submitted for inclusion in the regular budget of the municipality. Barrio high schools charge tuition fees averaging ₱90.00 a year, plus matriculation and other fees amounting to ₱10.00. Each student, therefore, spends an average of ₱100.00 annually.

Recently the government has supported the establishment of over 1,000 barrio high schools in the country to offer young boys and girls a secondary curriculum suited to regional manpower requirements. An outstanding contribution of this new concept according to Isidro is "the provision of opportunities for high school education in the rural areas. Isolated from the larger centers of population, the barrio folks are usually limited to primary and elementary schooling. With the popularization of the barrio schools, the children will be encouraged to study for a longer time since they will know that after elementary schooling there is a high school where they can continue their studies."⁸⁵

Another approach to education by the New Society is the Non-Formal Education. Minister of Education Juan Manuel declares, and I quote:

⁸⁵Isidro, p. 80.

"No one can deny the fact that education in general is the key to vast possibilities for a better life."⁸⁶

He then laments that it is sad and ironic that this key has been beyond the reach of many Filipinos who need it most. In response to this situation, President Marcos issued the Presidential Decree No. 6-A and No. 1139. The latter decree was issued on May 13, 1977; it focuses on the need to improve the life of the majority of Filipinos through some form of educational services. Non-formal education programs have been designed as a complement to the formal education that is inaccessible to the out-of-school youth, people in rural areas, agricultural workers, and industrial workers as well as the unemployed and under-employed who had left school before completing elementary and secondary schools.

The government's non-formal education programs have four areas of concern: (1) literacy, (2) rural development (aimed at improving the quality of family life and community life), (3) training for occupational skills, and (4) information, education and communication.

After more than a year of operations, non-formal education (NFE) has 226 types of training courses in the thirteen regions in the country and 686,831 students had

⁸⁶Juan L. Manuel, The Fookien Times Philippine Yearbook "Non-Formal Education" (Manila: The Fookien Times Philippine Yearbook, 1978), p. 304.

participated in its training programs.⁸⁷ Minister Manuel is confident that this type of education will equal formal education in status by the year 2000, as long as it receives proper and sufficient support from the federal and local agencies. There are at present various government agencies, which are engaged in non-formal education programs, helping to develop particular knowledge and skills associated with various economic activities useful in making a living. These are: (a) Self-Employment Assistance Program (SEAP) needy families are given small rolling capital to run a small business like raising poultry, embroidery, mushroom culture, and other forms of small business, (b) Skills training programs of the NMCY-furniture trade, electrical trade, and agricultural skills, and (c) Extension work programs of the Bureau of Agricultural Extension (BAEX) assisting farmers, housewives, and youth in learning and applying modern and effective means of food and animal production.

Formal and non-formal education support each other. Schools make their facilities and personnel available. Training institutions help prepare teachers to play effective instructional and leadership roles in non-formal education. Universities and colleges provide research, planning and evaluation services for non-formal programs, offer special

⁸⁷Ibid., p. 305.

training for leaders in this field, create sound and effective instructional materials for wide use in local programs, and encourage participation by their faculty members and student in non-formal education programs especially in rural areas.

To further boost the status of non-formal education, Department Memorandum No. 183 was issued by the Minister of Education, which provides for an equivalency scheme for crediting non-formal education.⁸⁸ Under this Memorandum, an out-of-school youth or adult who had left school before graduating but has learned skills through self-study or any of the non-formal training is credited for these skills, should he desire to re-enter the formal school system. He then is required to take an accrediting examination and his performance in the examination shall determine his grade placement. The Philippine Educational Placement Test is under the supervision of the Department of Education and Culture, National Educational Testing Center.

What still remains of American influence

In Chapter III, the goals of American education were mentioned.⁸⁹ The ultimate aim of education under the American regime was a new system of mass education, and the training

⁸⁸Ibid., p.p. 306-307.

⁸⁹Chapter III, p. 47.

of the people in the art of self-government as a preparation for the future independence. Given the economic and political purposes of American occupation, education had to be consistent with these broad purposes of American colonial policy. The Filipinos had to be trained as citizens of an American colony, whose national life had to be woven into the patterns of American dominance.

Dr. Trinidad H. Pardo de Tavera, a famous literary and political figure of the early twentieth century, led the movement to accept American sovereignty. He stressed the wisdom of Filipinos in assimilating the better traits of Anglo-American Culture.⁹⁰ Quoting his message from the essay of Renato Constantino, Pardo de Tavera said:

After peace is established, all efforts will be directed to Americanizing ourselves; to cause a knowledge of the English language to be extended and generalized in the Philippines, in order that through its agency the American spirit may take possession of us, and that we may adopt its principles, its political customs, and its peculiar civilization that our redemption may be complete and radical.⁹¹

Constantino observes four factors which have been and still are, largely responsible for the shaping of the Filipino life as a people. They are as follows:

⁹⁰ Condrado Benitez, History of the Philippines (Manila: Ginn and Company, 1954), p. 346. Dr. T. H. Pardo De Tavera helped to found the Federal Party which advocated American annexation of the Philippines as a state. He was one of the three members of the earliest Philippine Commission.

⁹¹ Renato Constantino, The Filipinos in the Philippines (Quezon City: Malaya Books Inc., 1972) p. 4.

The imposition of the English language, the Filipino-American oriented educational system, the American news services, magazines, and movies, and the Americans who have gone to live among the Filipino people.⁹²

The imposition of the English language was considered an indispensable instrument in the Filipino cultural, social, economic and political life. Through the English language and the educational system, the Filipinos became almost a part of America. They studied American history, know the exploits of American heroes by heart. With the language barrier disposed of and the system of education oriented to American practices, American standards and values became an important part of the intellectual makeup of the Filipinos.

Isidro has the following to say about English as the lingua franca of the education class in the Philippines:

Although the policies and the early practices adopted for the rapid development of English may be questioned, the use of this language can not be doubted. Through it the Philippines has easy access to the latest scientific inventions and discoveries in other countries and are kept abreast of cultural progress the world over. By it the Filipinos promote and maintain commercial relations with other countries, they were able to express their political aspirations before the American people in their peaceful campaign for independence.⁹³

⁹²Ibid., p. 71.

⁹³Isidro, p.p. 254-255.

Philippine education was shaped by the overriding factor of preserving and expanding American control. During that period the pattern of education, consciously or unconsciously, fostered and established certain attitudes on the part of the governed. These attitudes conformed to the purposes of American occupation.

The first and perhaps the master plan to use education as an instrument of colonial policy was the decision to use English as the medium of instruction. The English language introduced the Filipinos to a new world. With American textbooks, Filipinos started learning not only a new language but also a new way of life, alien to their traditions. With American education the Filipinos were not only learning a new language; they were also forgetting their own language, and started to become a new type of American. American ways were slowly being adopted, and their consumption habits were molded by the influx of American goods that came into the Philippines, duty free. American education, in effect, transplanted American political institutions and ideas into the Philippines.

Together with America's political and economic policies came effective cultural Americanization of the Filipinos whose native culture was in a state of disintegration because of the Spanish repressive rule. As a result of this disintegration, it proved easy for the Americans to disseminate their culture because as a people the Filipinos were

already an uprooted race. Consequently, English quickly became the accepted language of government, commerce, and education. As for the native dialects, they had lost their prestige and acceptance among the cultural leaders of the native population who used to express themselves in Spanish and later avidly learned English.

Another benefit which the English language affords the Filipinos is the service that it renders in their national life. English is one of their official languages, and is commonly used as a medium of communication in the legislative halls, in the courts, and in the executive offices of the government. It is also the medium of communication among the Filipinos from the different linguistic regions. From the northern tip of Luzon to the farthest point in the south, a Filipino makes himself understood through the use of English.

The Department Order No. 10, S. 1970, states that English shall remain as a medium of instruction beginning in Grade III with Filipino as a subject. The 40 minute-period for English in Grades I and II shall be devoted to oral communication. The 60 minute-period for English in Grade III and IV may be devoted to either Language or Reading or both at the discretion of the teacher. The 80 minute-period for English in Grades V and VI shall be used for grammar, 40 minutes for Reading.⁹⁴

⁹⁴General Policies on Education, 1973-74, p. 3.

On the bilingual education for both elementary and secondary, Department Order NO. 25, S. 1974 implemented guidelines for the policy on bilingual instruction. The use of Pilipino and English as media of instruction, as has been mentioned in the above paragraph, shall begin in Grade I in all subjects. In Grade I and II, the use of the vernacular shall be resorted to only when necessary to facilitate understanding of concepts which can not be precisely expressed in the prescribed medium for the subject. English and Pilipino shall be taught as language subjects in all grades in the elementary and secondary schools.⁹⁵

A schedule of implementation of the bilingual education program for both levels was adopted. A four year period started from the school year 1974-1975 as a transitional period in the use of Pilipino as a medium of instruction in social studies/social science, work education, character education, health and physical education. English remained as the medium of instruction for all other courses.

From school year 1978-1979 through the school year 1981-1982, the use of Pilipino for the subjects mentioned above became mandatory in both elementary and secondary. The use of English in all other subjects or courses in the elementary and secondary levels was also required. By the year 1984, graduates of all tertiary curricula should be able to pass

⁹⁵Ibid., p. 5.

examinations in English and/or Pilipino for the practice of their professions.

In the evaluation of pupil performance in the Philippines school system, norm-referenced tests and other standardized tests made in the United States have been used to measure their performance. The work-oriented curriculum, which is presently implemented in the schools, is called alternative schools or work-program in the United States. Dalmacio Martin wrote a dissertation on the potentialities of the cooperative work-experience program for general secondary schools in the Philippines. He studied in Ohio University. His dissertation describes some of the present work-oriented programs now implemented in the Philippines.

Other existing American influence will be described in Chapter VI.

CHAPTER VI

RETROSPECT AND PROSPECT

In structure, if not in content, the education system of the Republic of the Philippines appears as an amalgam of Spanish and American patterns. Encarnacion Alzona is credited with the statement that historically the development of educational institutions in the Philippines has been from higher levels to the lower, from top to bottom.¹ The situation today is still dominated by colleges and universities, although many of the existing problems for all education are in the lower grades. Under the Spanish rule, the primary emphasis was upon religious instruction taught by the Spanish clergy. The public schools, which represent a major contribution of the United States, follow the American system in the separation of church and state; however, church schools and colleges still hold a very important place. They are under government supervision but are not restricted in conducting religious instruction although such courses do not receive credit in public schools if a student transfers.

¹ Education in the Philippines (Manila: University of the Philippine Press, 1932), p.p. 21-31.

One of the first concerns of the Spanish conquerors was the establishment of missionary schools for their children and universities for their youth. The main objective for these schools was to provide education for the Spanish youth. By the middle of the 19th century the universities accepted Filipino youth, drawn from the wealthier families. Many of these Filipino youth became leaders of the movement for reform, and then later of the revolt.

Toward the latter part of the nineteenth century, Spanish oppression ignited a nationalistic spirit among the people. The Filipinos rose against Spain and through the Philippine Revolution of 1896-1898 achieved the overthrow of the Spanish colonial power. They established a short-lived Philippine Republic. The First Philippine Republic under General Aguinaldo was committed to a broad policy.² The Filipinos were in the process of stabilizing their democratic government when it collapsed under American pressure. The establishment of public schools was considered a potent factor in the pacification of the Filipino people. The concept of free public schools and educational opportunity for all proved to be a common ground for the new rulers and the Filipino people. The policy of mass education achieved its basic goal of democratization, which enabled the creation of

²Condrado Benitez, History of the Philippines rev. ed. (Manila: Ginn and Company, 1954), p. 291.

a literate and relatively well-informed citizenry and permitted progress of great numbers from the lower classes into the political process as participants. Section 13 of Act No. 74 provided that English be made the language of instruction in the public schools. This action was in line with the instructions of President McKinley to the Philippine Commission. In the beginning, the use of the native dialects and Spanish was allowed, until English was made the medium of instruction.³

The prevailing concern of the United States at that time was to make the Philippines the show-window of democracy in Asia. In order to achieve this aim the colonial administrators trained the Filipinos in the art of self government, and introduced a policy of mass education, promoted the health and native population and undertook a massive infrastructure program. These were the major components of the American colonial administration in the Philippines. It was a distinct program in the history of colonialism, the progressiveness of which drew world-wide attention, contrasted strongly with the harshness of European colonial policy elsewhere in Asia and elevated the image and influence of the United States.⁴

³Frenoza and Casim, Essentials of the Philippine Education (Manila: Abiva Publishing Inc., 1964), p.p. 19-20.

⁴Dean C. Worcester, The Philippines Past and Present (New York: The MacMillan Company, 1930), p. 322; and Storey, Lichuaco, Moorefield and Marcial P., The Conquest of the Philippines by the United States (New York: G.P. Putnam's Sons, 1926), p. 189.

and education was recognized as the best method of pacification of the people and training them in the art of self-government. There was such rapid progress in education that Taft, then Secretary of War, in a special report to the President in 1908, after his visit to open the first Philippine Assembly, was able to report that:

1. There had been established a public educational system with 37 divisions, each under a division superintendent of schools; and that there are in these divisions 379 school districts, each in charge of a supervising teacher.
2. During 1907 a total of 3687 schools had been in operation, including 3435 primary schools, 162 intermediate schools, 32 arts and trade schools, 5 agricultural schools, 17 domestic science schools, and 36 provincial schools.
3. The teaching staff in these schools was composed of 826 American teachers and 455 Filipino teachers paid from Insular funds, and 5656 Filipino teachers paid from municipal funds.
4. The teaching of the English language by the public schools was so successful that more people outside of Manila and a few other large cities, spoke English than Spanish.⁷

The organization of public secondary schools was part of the plan of the new government to endow the Philippines with a complete system of public schools, from grade one to the high school. The need for secondary schools was keenly felt by those who had finished the elementary grades in the

⁷Ibid., p. 338. William Taft, who was Commander General of the U.S. Army, remained as civil governor of the Philippines in 1901, when the civil government was fully established and Taft was inaugurated as civil governor.

government schools and wanted to continue their studies. The secondary schools which were in existence before the occupation of the Philippines by the Americans in 1898, were privately owned and nearly all were under the control of the church.⁸

The secondary school under the American regime was organized under the Law of March 7, 1902. It was planned to equal the best in terms of academic standards. It was patterned after the American secondary education in the following: aims, curriculum organization, method of instruction, instructional materials and American textbooks, teacher training, and administration and supervision.⁹ The advantages of accepting and using these imported and ready made models were easily understood. In general, they appear to have rendered good service in the Philippines. The differences between Spanish and American traditions still exist but they have been muted by a more Philippine character.¹⁰

Vocational education in trades and agriculture was attempted early in the history of the present educational system. In 1932, the trade and agricultural schools functioned

⁸ Ibid., p. 339.

⁹ Frenoza and Casim, Philippine Educational System (Manila: Abiva Publishing House, Inc., Revised Edition, 1964), p. 80.

¹⁰ Arthur L. Carson, The Story of Philippine Education (Quezon City: New Day Publishers, 1978), p. 247.

side by side with the provincial or academic high schools.¹¹ It was a triumph for the public school system which had worked incessantly for the appreciation of manual work in spite of the indifference of an academically-oriented society.¹²

Eventually, the schools gradually evolved and finally succeeded in implementing a program of education that gave dignity to labor. It was under the leadership of Pedro Guiang that vocational education was expanded and rehabilitated. Through the mutual assistance program of the Philippine Government and the United States Government, the program of the vocational schools was greatly expanded and more agricultural and trade schools were organized in the different provinces.¹³

According to Renato Constantino, there are four factors that have been and still are, remaining American influence visible on the life of the Filipinos: Aside from the earlier economic dependence of the Philippine Islands on the United States, the four factors are (1) the imposition of the English language, (2) the Philippine-American oriented educational system, (3) the American news service, magazines, and movies,

¹²Ibid., p. 3.

¹³Antonio Isidro, Trends and Issues in Philippine Education (Quezon City: Alemar-Phoenix Publishing House, Inc., 1972), p. 94.

(4) and the Americans who have stayed in the Philippines and live among the Filipinos.¹⁴

With the imposition of English language as the medium of instruction since the beginning of the American regime to the granting of Philippine Independence in 1946, the English language is still one of the languages of instruction both in public and private schools. At the present time, English is taught as a subject from grade 3 to the secondary high schools, and also to colleges and universities. Another benefit which the English language affords the Filipinos is the service that it renders in their national and international economic life. It is commonly used as a medium of communication in the legislative halls, in the courts, in the executive office of the government and in international business transaction.¹⁵

The following excerpt is taken from a speech delivered by Ex Minister of Education and Culture, Juan L. Manuel, at the conference of English supervisors, on August 17, 1970.

English will continue to be the language of science and technology. In July 1969 when Armstrong stepped on the moon and made a "giant leap for mankind," we were privileged to witness the event on TV or hear it on the radio. It was the first enjoyment for us because we knew English. We should continue to enjoy this advantage that we have over other nations who are now intent on putting up English programs.

¹⁴The Filipinos in the Philippines (Quezon City: Malaya Books, Inc., 1966), p. 71.

¹⁵Isidro, p. 205.

In the 70's English will still be very much a part of our national life because we need it to keep our country in the mainstream of international living.¹⁶

In addition to the foregoing developments, in order to take advantage of insights of contemporary Filipino educators, regarding the American influence in shaping Philippine secondary schools, a questionnaire was sent to 75 Filipino teachers, professionals and personnel of the Consulate General of the Philippines in Chicago.

A survey in the form of questionnaires was sent by the author to several Filipinos, who had graduated from the Philippine secondary schools, in order to obtain information on American influence in shaping Philippine secondary education. Ninety-five percent of the survey was returned, from the total number of 75 forms sent. See table 21 for dates of graduation, number of respondents and their present profession. Table 22 shows the subjects studied by respondents during three different periods of school year. Table 23 reflects how respondents answered questions asked in the questionnaires.

The following typical answers were responses to the question. Do you feel that the Philippine secondary education was influenced by American high school curricula during the American occupation of the Philippines? Since the

¹⁶Source Book in Philippine Education "English in the 70's" (Quezon City: Alemar-Phoenix Publishing House, Inc., 1973), p.p. 163-165.

TABLE 21

DATE OF GRADUATION

Dates of Graduation	No. of Respondents	Teachers		Univ. Prof.	Adm.	Diplomats
		Elem.	Secondary			
1932-1949	21	4	8	3	5	1
1950-1960	25	2	14	2	5	2
1961-1971	24	1	16	3	3	1

TABLE 22

SUBJECTS STUDIED BY RESPONDENTS

Subjects Studied by Respondents	1932-1949	1950-1960	1961-1971
Literature	20	25	24
Economics	17	21	22
Physical Science	10	7	12
Physics	11	18	12
Home Economics	12	12	12
Biology	20	15	14
U.S. Gov't	15	9	5
Trigonometry	4	4	5
Composition	21	25	24
General Science	21	25	24
U.S. History	21	25	24
Oriental History	21	16	10
Physical Ed.	21	25	24
Algebra	21	14	9
Phil. History	10	15	19
Mechanics	0	0	4
Geometry	2	0	0

TABLE 23

RESPONSES ON THE QUESTIONS ASKED

Questions	1932-1950		1951-1960		1961-1971		Does Not Know
	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	
Were the textbooks used written in English?	21		25		24		
Were the courses of study prescribed by the American teachers?	16	5	18	6	19	5	
Do you feel that there had been major reforms in the Philippine Secondary Education Curriculum structures after the American occupation?	18	3	14	11	13	12	
Do you feel that the curriculum reforms by the American educators presented a conflict in terms of the aspirations and values of the Filipinos?	5	16	13	12	10	15	
How were the curriculum structures of American secondary education transported to the Philippine secondary education?							
a. military	3		1		0		
b. missionaries	3		2		3		
c. American teachers	5		9		5		
d. all above	10		13		16		
Have secondary education curriculum and structure reforms been instituted within the last ten years?	19	2	21	3	19	3	2

other responses were substantially similar and repetitious, this sampling was considered representative.

"Definitely. Emphasis was focused on the study of English, American literature, U.S. history and government, to the extent that a Filipino student's knowledge of the United States of America far exceeds that of his own country. This thus influenced the Filipino way of thinking that anything stateside is the best. One innovation of the American educational system in the Philippines was the introduction of vocational and agricultural high schools to provide an alternate program for students who do not wish to pursue a college education."

"The Philippine secondary education very much influenced by the American high school curricula during the American occupation both in content and methodology. This was facilitated by the fact that English was immediately taught to the people, textbooks in English made available, textbooks written by Filipinos were patterned after the American textbooks."

"Education was popularized and was made available to the masses. All public schools were transformed into co-educational institutions. America's educational aims were to spread the English language to initiate democracy and train our people for good citizenship. This is how American high school curricula influenced the Philippine secondary education."

"Yes. The transition of school administration from the Spanish to the Americans caused a complete reformation in curricular offerings. While religion was the core and emphasis during the Spanish regime, the subject areas expanded in various fields when the American educators came. Everyone was democratized, education was open for all. The Filipinos were sold on American influence and this could be evidenced even to this day. We still lean on American authors and educators in our pursuit of professional growth."

"During the occupation of the Philippines by the Americans, the Philippine curriculum for the secondary education was markedly influenced by American High School curriculum because of the use of textbooks, references and manuals authored by the Americans themselves, with the heads of the departments educated mainly in American schools and universities. Later on, the Filipino teachers who succeeded the American educators themselves

were oriented along similar patterns, with modifications after 1944 to suit our national culture, customs and traditions."

"Surely, Philippine secondary education was influenced by American High school curricula. It is to be stated in this connection, that most, if not all, of the books used at the beginning of the American period in the Philippines were authored by Americans. Perhaps, it would be safe for me to say that the Philippine secondary education at that time was a carbon copy of the American secondary education, relative to the aims and structure, courses of study and length of time to finish high school, which is four years."

"The American educators, having been trained in the United States, must have directly or indirectly influenced the curriculum and ways of teaching in the Philippines. The only substitution and departure from American curriculum were the teaching of Philippine history, Spanish and physical education, where folk dancing, native games, and native music were permitted."

"United States became the ruling power in the Philippines for more than fifty years. With the coming of Americans in the country many changes were brought about in the lives of the people, many of these changes were introduced through the secondary schools. Filipinos learned democracy in action, religious freedom, self-government, popular education, safety and healthy ways and improved living."

"I feel there was considerable American influence remaining even in the late fifties. We studied American history, used textbooks mostly by American writers, sang mostly American songs during recreation hours between classes, and were inclined to use American names and situations when writing compositions. Our book of heroes included Filipinos and Americans."

"Without doubt, the Philippine secondary education was influenced by American high school curricula during the American occupation of the Philippines. The fact was that the United States government tried all means to achieve the improvement of the educational system of the Philippines. The United States government and church joined hands to achieve a rapid implementation of the American high school curriculum adjusted to the Philippine culture. This was effected by sending American teachers and missionaries to the Philippines. Many Filipino educators were also sent to the United States

to do some research work or make observations on the American educational system."

"These influences can be gleaned in almost all aspects of Philippine secondary education and have continued even after the American occupation. Although these influences have brought conflict with the Filipino heritage, in some ways, they have proven to have been of help in organizing the present Philippine secondary education."

Education today is the biggest enterprise of the Philippine government.¹⁷ For 1975-1976 the Department of Education and Culture was given a budget of ₱1,575 million pesos, nearly 11.6 percent of the national budget of ₱18,200 million pesos. Recent statistics indicate education's phenomenal growth. Enrollment in private and public secondary schools was over two million, compared with 670,000 in 1960-61. The secondary school enrollment index was 301.7 percent, or 3.0 times more than the enrollment for 1960-1961. A total of 10.5 million Filipinos (from elementary, secondary and collegiate levels) or over 30 percent of the population, receive formal schooling. Percentage of the population receiving non formal education was not available at the time this paper was written. The Philippines' literacy rate noted in 1976 of 85.7 percent was the highest in Asia and compared very favorably with those richer countries.¹⁸

¹⁷Juan Manuel, p. 85.

¹⁸The Philippine Department of Information, Education (Manila: Bureau of National Foreign Information, Department of Public Information, Editasia, 1976), p. 90.

Educational expectations in secondary schools in the Philippines for the 1980's are outlined by the Ministry of Education and Culture in Appendix D.¹⁹

¹⁹Staff of the Ministry of Education and Culture, Paper on Philippine Education in the 80's (Manila: Ministry of Education and Culture, 1979), p.p. 1-5.

CHAPTER VII

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The study concerns itself with the examination of American influence in shaping Philippine secondary education from 1898 to 1978. It is designed to identify how American school structures and curricula were transplanted to the Philippine school system. A careful examination of the development of secondary education under the Philippine Republic was undertaken. Since in this study, the author attempted to reconstruct the development of the Philippine secondary education under two periods, namely: 1900-1946 and 1946-1978, American and Philippine educational books and materials pertinent to this study constituted the principal sources. These books and materials were secured from the libraries in certain universities and from the Ayers Collection of the Newberry Library.

Chapter I of this dissertation presented an overview of the nature and scope of the Philippine school system, historical perspective, structure and functions of the Department of Education, and education and economic development of the country. The Philippine school ladder consists of three levels above kindergarten. They are the elementary, consisting of four primary years and two intermediate grades; the

secondary, consisting of four years; and the collegiate, for four years or more for the various professions.

Chapter II focused on the presentation of the historical background which provided a framework in examining the Philippine educational system and the effects of the American occupation on that system. Such areas as the aim of the Spanish conquest, some of the main benefits of Spain for the Filipinos, the goals of American colonization and the major American contribution to the Philippines. Spain ruled the Philippines over three and a half centuries and spread Christianity in the Islands. United States took over the Philippines from Spain in 1898, and ruled the country for forty-eight years. It was interesting to note that in a short period of colonizing the Philippines, America made major contributions to the betterment of life of the Filipinos.

The first part of Chapter III presented an analysis of the Philippine education under the Spanish regime. Among these were education for the elites, education for women, universities founded, and education for the masses. The Educational Decree of 1863 was the most notable attempt of the Spaniards to reform the educational system of the Philippines. The second part of Chapter III presented an analysis of education under the American rule. Education changed significantly with the imposition of the American regime. It was surprising to note that in less than three weeks after the capitulation of Manila the schools were re-opened by the Military Government.

of public schools from grade one to high school. Chapter V presented the development of the Philippine secondary school under the Republic from 1946 to 1978. The main concern was to develop a more Philippine character in the secondary schools. The second phase of the development of the secondary school system of the Philippines was discussed extensively and it included the re-organization of the secondary school system, aims, curriculum organization, enrollment, evaluation, instructional materials and textbooks, teacher training, administration and supervision, financing school, new approaches to secondary education and what still remains of American influence. A comprehensive examination on these points was made and recorded.

Chapter VI presented a retrospect and prospect of the educational system of the Philippine Republic. It was interesting to note that one of the first concerns of the Spanish conquerors was the establishment of missionary schools for their children and universities for their youth. The main objective for these schools was to provide education for the Spanish youth. Toward the middle part of the 19th century few Filipinos from the wealthier families were accepted in the universities. Many of these Filipinos became the leaders of the movement of reform, and then later of the revolt. The Filipinos rose against Spain and overthrow the Spanish government. In 1898, the Philippines was occupied by the American military government. The establishment of schools

The ultimate aim of education under the American regime was a new system of mass education, and the uses of English as the medium of instruction. It was remarkable to observe that there was so little difficulty on the part of the American teachers in secularizing the schools in the Philippines, when the majority of the people were Roman Catholics. Education under the American rule was divided into five periods. One of these periods was the assessment and evaluation of the Philippine school system. The Monroe Survey Committee named under Dr. Paul Monroe was created by the Philippine legislature in 1925. The members of the Survey Committee were: Dr. Stephen Duggan, Dr. Jesse F. Williams, Dr. George Counts, Dr. Harold Rugg, Dr. Frederick Bonser, and Miss Mary E. Pennell. Dr. Monroe was the chairman of the Committee. The greatest effort during that period of assessment was directed to the improvement of the quality of the teaching force and the instructional method used.

Chapter IV presented the development of the secondary schools in the Philippines under the American rule. The American influence on the shaping of the Philippine educational system was reflected in the aims of secondary schools, curriculum organization, method of instruction, evaluation, instructional materials and textbooks, teacher training, administration and supervision and funding of schools. The organization of public secondary schools was a part of the plan of the new government to endow the Philippines with a complete system

While the main thrust of this study has been on the shaping of Philippine secondary education through American influences, the earlier Spanish and more importantly, the later Filipino molding of the secondary schools has not been discounted. A summary and conclusions were presented in Chapter VII.

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APPENDIX A¹

SIXTY-SIX PHILIPPINE PROVINCES ARRANGED
IN ELEVEN GEOGRAPHICAL REGIONS

Region I

Manila (Regarded as a Province)

Region II

Ilocos & Mt. Province

Abra

Benquet

Ifugao

Ilocos Norte

Ilocos Sur

Kalinga-Apayao

La Union

Mt. Province

Region III

Cagayan Valley Region

Batanes

Cagayan

Isabela

Nueva Vizcaya

Region IV

Central Luzon

Bataan

Bulacan

Nueva Ecija

Pampanga

Pangasinan

Tarlac

Zambales

¹Arthur L. Carson, The Story of Philippine Education
(Quezon City: New Day Publishers, 1978), p. 277.

Region V

Southern Luzon & Islands
Batangas
Cavite
Laguna
Marinduque
Occidental Mindoro
Oriental Mindoro
Palawan
Quezon
Rizal

Region IV

Bicol Provinces & Islands
Albay
Comarines Norte
Camarines Sur
Catanduances
Masbate
Sorsogan

Region VII

Western Visayas
Aklan
Antique
Capiz
Iloilo
Negros Occidental
Rombion

Region VIII

Central Visayas
Bohol
Cebu
Negros Oriental

Region IX

Eastern Visayas
Leyte
Eastern Samar
Northern Samar
Western Samar

Region X

Northern Mindanao
Agusan del Norte
Agusan del Sur
Bukidnon
Camiguin
Lanao del Norte
Lanao del Sur
Misamis Occidental
Misamis Oriental
Surigao del Norte
Surigao del Sur

Region XI

Southern Mindanao & Sulu
Cotabato
South Cotabato
Davao del Norte
Davao del Sur
Sulu
Zamboanga del Norte
Zamboanga del Sur

APPENDIX B

LAWS AFFECTING EDUCATION IN THE PHILIPPINES

The official entity that was entrusted to take care of the civil government right after the military regime was the Second Philippine Commission whose members were appointed by the President of the United States.

On January 1, 1901 this Commission passed Act 74, which has the following provisions:¹

Section 1. A Department of Public Instruction for the Philippine Islands is hereby established, the central office of which shall be in the city of Manila. All primary instruction in the schools established under this Act shall be free.

Section 2. All schools heretofore established in the Philippine Islands, under the auspices of the Military Government, are hereby declared to be in the Department of Public Instruction established by section one and are made subject to the control of the officers of the Department.

Section 3. The chief officer of this Department shall be designated as the General Superintendent of Public Instruction. His powers and duties will be exercised and discharged under the supervision of the Military governor.

Section 6. There shall be a division superintendent, in each school division, established by the General Superintendent.

Section 10. There shall be established in each municipality organized under any General Order of the Military Governor, or under such municipality code as may be hereafter enacted, a local school board consisting of four

¹Florencio Frenoza and Canuto P. Casim, Philippine Educational System, Important School Laws Providing the Legal Bases of Education in the Philippines (Manila: Abiva Publishing House, Inc., 1964), p.p. 537-555.

or six members, as the division superintendent of schools and the mayor of the municipality may determine.

Section 13. Every town shall constitute a school district and it shall be the duty of the municipal council thereof to make as ample provision as possible by local taxation for the support of all established within its jurisdiction.

Section 14. The English language shall as soon as practicable, be made the basis of all public school instruction, and soldiers may be detailed as instructors until such time as they may be replaced by trained teachers.

Section 15. Authority is hereby given to the General Superintendent of Public Instruction, to obtain from the United States one thousand trained teachers at monthly salaries of not less than seventy-five dollars, the exact salary of each teacher to be fixed by the General Superintendent of Public Instruction in accordance with the efficiency of the teacher in question and the importance of the position held. The necessary traveling expenses of such teachers from their places of residence to Manila shall be paid by the Government.

Section 17. There shall be established and maintained in the city of Manila a Normal School for the education of natives of the Islands in the science of Teaching. The rules and plan for the organization of such schools shall be determined by the General Superintendent of Schools.

Section 19. The General Superintendent of Public Instruction is authorized and directed, under the supervision of the Military Governor, to procure the making of plans and estimates for the creation of such buildings as he may deem necessary, including a building or buildings for the Normal School in Manila. Such plans and estimates shall be submitted to the Commission.

Section 21. The General Superintendent of Public Instruction is directed to prepare and submit to the Commission through the Military Governor a statement showing the textbooks and other supplies which will be needed for the year nineteen hundred and one, the estimated cost of which shall not exceed the sum of two hundred and twenty thousand dollars.

Act No. 74 was survived by Act. No. 477, on October 8, 1902. This Act No. 477 created the Bureau of Education and had direct control of the public schools.² It was placed under the control of the Department of Public Instruction which was headed by a Secretary who was a member of the Philippine Commission.

Organic Law of 1916, known as the Jones Law.³ When this law was passed the Department of Public Instruction became one of the executive departments of the Insular Government and was headed by the Vice Governor-General.

Act No. 1870 was enacted for the purpose of founding a university for the Philippine Islands, giving it a corporate existence, and providing for a board of regents, and defining the Board's responsibilities and duties, also providing higher professional instruction, and other purposes.

Under the American regime, the Filipinos realized the dream of a state institution of higher learning entirely free from clerical control. By an Act passed by the Philippine Assembly, and authorized by the United States, Act No. 1870 was passed in 1908,⁴ creating a university under the name of University of the Philippines. In organization and administration, it was patterned after American state universities.

Act No. 2706 (Bureau of Private Schools).⁵ Act No. 74 of the Philippine Commission which established the Department of Public Instruction in the Philippines recognized the existence of private schools in the Islands, by the provision in Act No. 74, section 27. The provision of Act No. 2706 made the inspection and recognition of private schools and colleges obligatory for the Secretary of Public Instruction and authorized the said Secretary to appoint a Commissioner of Private Education.

The Act provides the inspection of all schools applying for permission to open or for Government recognition. It further provides that the Commissioner of Private Education shall be under the direct authority of the Secretary of Public

²Concepcion A. Aquila, Educational Legislation, Law and Education (Manila: Aquila Publications, 1956), p. 79.

³Ibid., p. 125.

⁴Ibid., p.p. 442-443.

⁵Frenoza and Casim, p.p. 547-551.

Instruction, and besides the powers and duties granted to him by the Act, he shall be subject to other regulations concerning his powers and rights as the Secretary of Instruction may prescribe.

The Education Act of 1940.⁶ This act was enacted to provide for the compulsory attendance requirement in the Philippines. Section 5 of the said Act provides:

Section 5. No child shall be admitted into the public schools except on condition that he shall remain in the school until he shall have completed at least the primary course.

Compulsory attendance as herein required may be waived in any one of the following cases: first, when the distance from home of the child to the nearest school exceeds three kilometers and the said school is not conveniently possible to the child, considering the means of transportation available; second, where such child is mentally defective or is physically unable to enter the said school, of which fact a certificate of a duly licensed physician should be sufficient evidence; third, where on account of the economic condition of his parents, the child cannot afford to continue on in school; and fourth, when the child transfers to a private school.⁷

The construction and revision of the different curricula offered in the Philippine public schools are more of an administrative function rather than of legislative prescription. However, in very rare cases had the lawmaking body of the Philippines prescribed certain subjects to be taught or to be included in the curriculum. The law sometimes prescribes a revision of the curriculum along certain lines and in accordance with certain objectives.

A good example of such kind of legislative mandate is found in Sections 2 and 3 of the Commonwealth Act No. 586, otherwise known as the Educational Act of 1940, which says:⁸

⁶Ibid., p.p. 552-556.

⁷Ibid., p. 557.

⁸Aguila, p.p. 243-244.

Section 2. In order to meet the increasing demand for public elementary educational instruction and at the same time comply with the constitutional mandate on public education, a complete revision of the public elementary school system is imperative. Such a revision shall have the following objectives: (a) to simplify, shorten, and render more practical and economical both the primary and intermediate courses of instruction so as to place the same within the reach of the largest possible number of school children; (b) to afford every child of school age adequate facilities to commence and to complete at least the primary course of instruction; (c) to give every child completing the primary course an adequate working knowledge of reading, writing, and the fundamentals of arithmetic, geography, Philippine history and government, character and civic training; and (d) to insure that all the children attending the elementary schools shall remain literate and become useful, upright, and patriotic citizens.

Section 3. The Department of Public Instruction shall forthwith make revision of the elementary school curriculum so as to effectuate the objectives set forth in section 2 of the said Act. The revised elementary school curriculum once approved by the President of the Philippines shall be adopted in all public schools as soon as practicable but not later than the commencement of the school year 1941-42.

The Consitution of the Philippines and education

Previous to the promulgation of the Philippine Consitution, Act No. 74 which was considered as the Magna Carta of the Philippine education, constituted the legal basis of education. This Act No. 74 established a system of free public schools, created the Department of Public Instruction and delegated it to supervise public education.

From the inception of the school system in 1901 to the establishment of the Republic on July, 1946, the fundamental objectives of the Philippine education have been primarily the development of English as a common language and the training of the people in the art of self-government as a preparation for the eventual independent statehood. With the adoption of the Constitution and the establishment of the Republic the educational aims, in view of the changed political status, have been definitely redefined and have been incorporated as part of the Constitution.

The Philippine Constitution provides the most important fundamental basis of its educational system. These constitutional precepts on education are set forth in Article XIV, Section 5, as specified by law:

All educational institutions shall be under the supervision of the and subject to regulation by the State. The Government shall establish and maintain a complete and adequate system of public education, and shall provide at least free public primary instruction, and citizenship training to adult citizens. Optional religious instruction shall be maintained in the public schools as now authorized by law. Universities established by the State shall enjoy academic freedom. The State shall create scholarships in arts, science, and letters for specially gifted citizens.⁹

⁹Ibid., p. 79.

APPENDIX C

THE OFFICIAL TEXTS USED IN THE PUBLIC ACADEMIC

SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN 1930

First Year

Longfellow, Evangeline, Philippine Prose and Poetry, New Practical English for High Schools, History of the United States, Course in Algebra, Every-day Civics (Philippine edition), The Silent Readers, The Rizal Readers, First Year Reader, and Story Hour Readings.

Second Year

Selections from Irving's Sketch Book, Arnold's Sohrab and Rustum, Selected Short Poems, New Practical English for High Schools, Civic Science in Home and Community, Elson: Modern Times and the Living Past, Hart and Feldman: Plane Geometry.

Third Year

English Poems from Chaucer to Kipling, Silas Marner, Shakespeare, The Merchant of Venice, English Composition, Book Two, Bureau of Education: English Composition, New Essentials of Biology with Philippine Supplement, Biology Laboratory Manual, Modern Times and the Living Past, History of the Orient, Second Course in Algebra, Tan: Modern High School Arithmetic, Beginning Spanish, Galdos, Dona Perfecta: Rizal: Noli Me Tangere.

Fourth Year

English Poems from Chaucer to Kipling, Life of Samuel Johnson, Eliot, Five American Contributions to Civilization, Brooks: English Composition, Book Two: Business English and Correspondence, Bureau of Education: English Composition, Economic Condition in the Philippines, Elements of Economics, Benitez, History of the Philippines, Practical Physics, First Course in Laboratory, Physics, Kalaw & Malcolm: Philippine Government, Dona Perfecta: Beginning Spanish, Noli Me Tangere.

Publishers:

American Book Co., Ginn & Co., The John Winston Co., The Associated Publishers, Scribner's & Sons, The MacMillan Co., The Century Company, Lewis and Rowland and Houghton and Mifflin Co.

For provincial normal schools, and courses:

Psychology for Teachers. La Rue. American Book Co.
 The Observation of Teaching. Maxwell. Houghton Mifflin Co.
 Acquiring Skill in Teaching. Philippine Edition. Grant. Silver, Burdett & Co.
 A Student's History of Education. Duggan. D. Appleton & Co.
 Practical Problems of the School. Waits. Benj. H. Sanborn Co.
 Advanced Physiology and Hygiene. Philippine Edition. Conn and Budington. Silver, Burdett & Co.

Supplementary readers:

The Kendall Seventh Reader. Kendall and Stevens. D.C. Heath & Co.
 The Silent Readers, Eighth Reader. Lewis and Rowland. The John C. Winston Co.
 Everyday Classics, Eighth Reader. Baker and Thorndike. The MacMillan Co.
 Child-Library Readers, Book Eight. Elson and Burris. Scott, Foresman & Co.

For home economics course:

Shelter and Clothing. Kinne and Cooley. The MacMillan Co.
 Science of Home Making. Pirie. Scott, Foresman & Co.
 First Aid. Lynch. P. Blakiston's Son & Co.
 Infant Feeding (mimeographed) Bureau of Education.

For agricultural course:

Farm Business Arithmetic. Lewis. D.C. Heath & Co.
 Farm Science. Spillman. World Book Co.
 Civic Biology. Hunter. American Book Co.
 Beginnings in Animal Husbandry. Plumb. Webb Book Publishing Co.
 School Entomology. Sanderson and Peairs. John Wiley & Sons.
 Farm Management. Boss. Lyons and Carnahan.
 Farm Motors. Potter. McGraw-Hill Book Co.
 Practical Physics. Black and Davis. The MacMillan Co.
 Elementary Forge Practice. Harcourt. Manual Arts Press.

Agricultural Engineering. Davidson. Webb Book
Publishing Co.
Principles of Bookkeeping and Farm Accounts. Bexell
and Nichols. American Book Co.
Farm Economics. Howe. American Book Co.

For trade course:

Great American Industries, Minerals. Rocheleau.
A. Flanagan Co.
Great American Industries, Manufactures. Rocheleau.
A. Flanagan Co.
Course in Mechanical and Free-hand Drawing. Bureau
of Education.
Manual of Woodworking. Bureau of Education.
Alhambra. Irving. Ginn & Co.
Treasure Island. Stevenson. Ginn & Co.
A Brief History of the World. Botsford. The MacMillan
Co.
Strength of Material. Merriman. John Wiley & Sons.
Solid Geometry. Wentworth and Smith. Ginn & Co.
Plane and Spherical Trigonometry. Wentworth and
Smith. Ginn & Co.

For commercial course:

Principles of Bookkeeping. Miner and Elwell. Ginn & Co.
Practical Business Arithmetic. Moore and Miner. Ginn
& Co.
New Rational Typewriting. Sorelle. Gregg Publishing Co.
Gregg Shorthand Manual. Gregg. Gregg Publishing Co.
Gregg Speed Studies. Gregg. Gregg Publishing Co.
Fundamentals of Business English. Holzinger. World
Book Co.
Vocabulary-Building Speller. Meyer. The MacMillan Co.
Philippine Business Law. Perkins. D. Appleton & Co.

APPENDIX D

PHILIPPINE EDUCATION IN THE 80'S

I. Educational Expectations in Secondary Education

In the next decades education for rural development will be in full blast. The learning units that have been prepared to meet the changes the year previous to the 1980's shall be in full implementation and new needs will be met with similar curriculum materials probably with some deviation in format in line with innovations.

In 1976, 12 barangay high schools, one to a region, were used as pilot schools for the development of these schools into industrial centers where the students will acquire skills needed to produce articles from the raw materials in the community. These schools are open to adults and out-of-school youth for purposes of either acquiring work skills or for completing high school education. In the 1980's, more of these schools shall have been developed to allow more time for vocational subjects; four subjects in the curriculum are integrated - Pilipino and Social Studies as one subject and English and Science as another subject.

Integration of government thrusts was the approach in educating the public to contribute to the development of national goals.

Learning units and support materials have been prepared on agrarian reform, credit consciousness, proper water utilization, drug abuse control and ecology. The agrarian reform learning units and support materials will be in nationwide implementation in the year '79-80. Credit consciousness, proper water utilization and drug abuse control are due for try-out and revision in the year '79-80, materials on human rights and soil erosion control will be prepared in the four curriculum levels in the high school.

The staff training program which started the summer at the Pangasinan State University under the Civil Service Commission and the MEC will continue hopefully in the 12

other regions. If this is carried out, it is expected that the result of the revised secondary education curriculum will be felt.

It has been observed that in spite of our democratic system of government, the approach to education has been authoritarian. With the policy towards the democratization of education which means not only making available secondary education to everyone but also the humanization of the content and processes of teaching, emphasis will be on studies that humanize man - how we could better adjust to realities and how we could elevate his spirit towards the lofty and the noble. Teaching processes will be compassionate as well as scientific. Classroom will be less formal. Teachers will be more sympathetic and warm. Failures will be minimized with more time given to remedial teaching. Students will be given training in independent study to equip them with skills for life-long education. The youth hopefully will find greater pride in their culture. The beautiful and desirable in Filipino culture will be recreated in every child. Pilipino will be the language all over the land with the strengthening of the Bilingual Policy, which also means that the leaders would also gain equal proficiency in English.

In the 1980's economic development shall have been accelerated. More time shall be available for cultural development. Added stress shall be given to the fine and the performing arts in the curriculum. It is expected that more electives shall be for self-fulfillment and the development of the arts. With the new policy on the selection of honors, which gives added weight to the development of character; students shall have more acceptable values which hopefully will bring about not only material progress, but a happier, kinder world.

With the scientific approach to teaching, the younger generations will be more objective and open-minded and would reach sound and independent decisions.

Curriculum materials will be more varied and interesting to meet the maturity and interest levels of the learners. More reading materials will be written in Pilipino.

Lastly, the practical arts classes shall be tailored to the needs of industry and rural development.

II. Development in Secondary Education - Equity, Efficiency and Excellence

1. Implementation of the Bilingual Policy

New textbooks and other instructional materials were purchased from school board funds aimed at developing competence in the use of Pilipino in teaching Social Studies, Home Economics and other subjects taught in Pilipino.

2. A significant project in the Secondary Education is the production of teaching devices and production of tools in the various trade schools. The project is funded from various sources. Devices, industrial arts and garden tools are to be given to teachers free of charge. Examples are the following: Teaching devices in mathematics such as sets of flash cards, sets of mathematical shapes, sturdy iron-made stands for charts and science kits.
3. Offerings of vocational electives and academic electives relevant to countryside development.
4. Integration of various government thrusts in relevant subject areas.
5. Implementation of the Revitalized Job-Creation Program.
6. Provision for the improvement of effective instruction to raise the standard of secondary education.
7. Establishments of more standard barangay and private high schools and provision for more scholarships for the poor but deserving students in DDU areas and communities to equalize educational opportunities.
8. Closer supervision of Practical Arts and Vocational Electives classes so that students will acquire middle level occupational skills.
9. Provision for all secondary school to strive to increase, update and replace their vocational, science and library facilities.
10. Provision for equity in salary among locally funded high schools, private schools, and be on par with that of national school teachers.

11. Educational relevance and integration:
 - a. emphasis on eliciting behavior that reflects development-oriented values, especially achievement orientation, self-reliance, self-discipline, community spirit, industry, and national consciousness.
12. Establishment and/or improvement of secondary schools including provisions for extension service, facilities and equipment.
13. Establishment and/or upgrading of technical institutes, skills training centers, and other non-formal training programs and projects for the out-of-school youth and the unemployed.
14. Curriculum and staff development expansion of agricultural secondary programs and extension activities, design, utilization and improvement of instructional technology and development and improvement of programs and facilities in both public and private schools.



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APPENDIX E

QUESTIONNAIRES ON AMERICAN INFLUENCE IN SHAPING
PHILIPPINE SECONDARY EDUCATION

The purpose of this questionnaire is to obtain information on American influence in shaping Philippine Secondary Education. The data obtained will be a part of the dissertation, which I am writing. Your assistance in completing this questionnaire is critical and most appreciated. Please return this questionnaire to me, in the self-addressed envelope, which I have provided for you. Thank you.

Maria Guillen Acierto

.....

Please fill in the blanks.

Name _____ Position or Title _____

School or Office _____

Residence:

Philippines _____

United States _____

Graduated from: High School _____ Year _____

University/College _____ Year _____

1. Did you study the following subjects in high school?
Please check which apply.

<input type="checkbox"/> Literature	<input type="checkbox"/> United States Government
<input type="checkbox"/> Economics	<input type="checkbox"/> Trigonometry
<input type="checkbox"/> Physics	<input type="checkbox"/> Mechanics
<input type="checkbox"/> Physical Sc.	<input type="checkbox"/> Stenography
<input type="checkbox"/> Home Eco.	<input type="checkbox"/> Philippine History
<input type="checkbox"/> Composition	<input type="checkbox"/> Algebra
<input type="checkbox"/> General Science	<input type="checkbox"/> Drafting
<input type="checkbox"/> Oriental History	<input type="checkbox"/> U.S. History
<input type="checkbox"/> Biology	<input type="checkbox"/> Physical Education

2. Were the textbooks used written in English? ☐ Yes ☐ No
3. Were the courses of study prescribed by the American educators? ☐ Yes ☐ No
4. Do you feel that there had been major reforms in the Philippine Secondary Education Curriculum structures after the American Occupation? ☐ Yes ☐ No
5. Do you feel that the curriculum reforms by the American educators presented a conflict in terms of the aspirations and values of the Filipinos? ☐ Yes ☐ No
6. How was the curriculum structures of American secondary education transported to the Philippine secondary education?
- ☐ military personnel
 - ☐ missionaries
 - ☐ American teachers
 - ☐ all above
7. Do you feel that the Philippine secondary education was influenced by the American high school curricula during the American occupation of the Philippines? Please write comments. Use additional sheet if necessary.
8. Have secondary education curriculum and structure reforms been instituted within the last ten years? ☐ Yes ☐ No
☐ Does not know

APPROVAL SHEET

The dissertation submitted by Maria G. Acierto has been read and approved by the following committee:

Dr. John M. Wozniak, Professor
School of Education, Loyola

Dr. Rosemary V. Donatelli, Associate Professor
School of Education, Loyola

Dr. Gerald L. Gutek, Dean
School of Education, Loyola

The final copies have been examined by the director of the dissertation and the signature which appears below verifies the fact that any necessary changes have been incorporated and that the dissertation is now given final approval by the Committee with reference to content and form.

The dissertation is therefore accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Maria G. Acierto.

May 14, 1980
Date

John M. Wozniak
Director's Signature